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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1895.

The Week.

THE House is to vote on the Springer bill to-day. Should the bill pass, the Senate must act or refuse to act. The necessities of the Treasury, however, are immediate. The public were in a state of alarm on Wednesday week. A great deal of gold was drawn out under the influence of panic. If the banks had not stood firm, and refused either to draw gold from the Treasury for their customers or to receive special deposits of gold, we should have had a general panic, under the influence of which the Treasury would have lost every dollar of gold that it held, as rapidly as it could be drawn out. The negotiation for a \$100,000,000 loan abroad has had a quieting effect, and for this President Cleveland is again entitled to the thanks of the business community and of the whole community. His services in this emergency have been no less than they were in the matter of the Sherman repeal bill.

In the Senate debate the question was raised whether there was any power to use the proceeds of bond sales to meet the current expenses of the Government. This is not a new question, nor is the answer to it new. After a greenback has been redeemed in gold, it does not cease to exist, since there is an express law which provides that it shall be paid out again. There is no way to pay it out except for Government expenses or for redeeming the public debt. Of course, the expenses must be paid before the debt is redeemed. This is merely saying that, with a given sum of money in the Treasury, the Government's present obligations must be paid rather than its future ones. Thus it comes to pass that while bonds can be sold only for the purpose of redeeming legal-tender notes, and while the gold received for bonds is used only for that purpose, the practical operation is the employment of the money to meet a deficiency of current revenues. It is true that this was not contemplated by Congress when the bonds were authorized, but neither was a Treasury deficit contemplated. The intention was to make specie payments effective and permanent; and while no such emergency as the present was then anticipated, the wisdom of that clause in the specie-resumption act has now been vindicated in a signal manner.

Whatever may be the true theory of the origin of the Treasury's troubles, it is as clear as a sum in simple arithmetic that the Government's present embarrassment

is, in Mr. Wilson's phrase, as a banker, not as a paymaster. On January 31 there was a net cash balance in the Treasury of \$99,897,337. That sum is enough to pay the running expenses of the Government for three months, even if not a penny of revenue came in. To be entirely fair, and leave out of consideration the subsidiary coin (\$15,481,586), the Treasury has more than \$80,000,000 in hand—seven times as much as Foster had in hand when the Republican era of great prosperity closed two years ago, and ample to meet every demand liability which can be presented to the Government as a paymaster for two months to come. But the Government is unfortunate enough to be a banker as well, and has outstanding something like \$500,000,000 in notes which it is bound to redeem in gold, on presentation. But, alack! of gold to redeem them in it has but \$44,000,000, and it is evident that it could be bankrupted to-morrow as a banker while remaining perfectly solvent as a paymaster. Salaries, supplies, interest—it can meet them all with cash payments and have plenty left; but the greenbacks and Treasury notes are all the while making their deadly round and threatening instant collapse of the whole fabric of the currency. Yet the *Tribune* says the greenbacks are the kind of money the people "like," and that nobody must lift a finger to get rid of them; so what are we to do?

When the House of Representatives fixed a time for taking a vote on the Pacific Railroad bill against the protests of the opponents of the measure, it was generally supposed that the same vote would be cast for the bill itself. It has turned out differently, the bill having been defeated by a large majority. Technically the bill is merely recommitted without instructions, but in the present state of the public business it might as well have been killed outright. There is no chance of its coming up again at this session. If a special session of the new Congress is called directly after the expiration of the present one, it will still be possible to save the Government's claim or the greater part of it; but if the next Congress should prove as impotent to deal with the question as this one, the whole will be lost. A crisis has been reached where non-action means foreclosure of the prior lien. The Government has no more rights than any other second-mortgage bondholder, and there is no more reason why the courts should postpone a sale under the first mortgage than in a case where private parties only are concerned. Indeed, there are some reasons why less delay should be granted. Usually the holders of junior securities come into court and plead that they have been taken by surprise, that they need time to collect the securities and take

counsel together, and that they ought not to be called to a sudden determination of their rights and interests. Nothing of this kind can be said for the Government. It has had this matter under debate more than ten years, and when delay was no longer possible it has refused to take any action whatever. It is true that the Government can come in, at a sale under the first mortgage, and redeem the property from that lien, but to do so requires an act of Congress which we shall not get from this Congress and ought not to get from any, since the main line without the branches is not worth the first mortgage.

Why, it may be asked, does the House vote against its proper organ, the committee on Pacific railroads? The debate during the three days set apart for it shows that the most moving consideration was the sins of people who are mostly dead, and who, even if they were alive, could not be compelled to disgorge their ill-gotten gains. "If we pass this bill," said Mr. Snodgrass of Tennessee, "we shall condone all the frauds, all the crimes, all the thefts, all the robberies that these directors and stockholders have committed against the Government of the United States and the people of this country, and besides we shall continue to give them an additional subsidy for fifty years more." And rather than give them what is called an additional subsidy we will now hand over to them our entire claim and preserve our consistency. True, we shall not prosecute anybody for these frauds, crimes, thefts, and robberies long past, whether the perpetrators be alive or dead, but we shall preserve our consistency at the expense of \$116,000,000. It is needless to say that such a course would not be pursued by any private creditor.

Congress having thrown over its shoulder the sum of \$116,000,000, by voting against the Pacific Railway funding bill, may have a chance to reject \$75,000,000 which, it is understood, will be offered as a lump sum for the Government's claim on all the subsidized roads. It is proposed to attach an amendment of this kind to one of the appropriation bills as a last chance to get anything. The original issue of bonds in aid of these roads was \$64,000,000, upon which interest has been paid to the amount of \$102,000,000. The roads have repaid \$50,000,000 by transportation and sinking-funds, leaving the balance of debt mentioned above. If an offer of \$75,000,000 is made now for the Government's claim in full, it ought to be accepted instantly. That sum would meet all the maturing bonds known as the "currency 6s," and leave a margin of nearly \$11,000,000 to be applied on the back-interest account.

The introduction in the Senate of a bill to retire Justice Jackson of the United States Supreme Court upon a pension, although he has served only two of the ten years ordinarily required, is interpreted as meaning that there is no hope of his rendering further service upon the bench, owing to his impaired health. The appointment of a Democrat as his successor will involve no change in the division of the judges between the two parties, as Jackson, although appointed by Harrison near the end of his administration, to succeed Lamar, is a Democrat. With the retirement of Jackson there will be only three of the nine members of the bench whose appointment dates back of 1888, and one of these three, Field, will before long be compelled to abandon his post by the increasing infirmities of old age. But if Cleveland should appoint his successor, it would make no change in the party division, as Field, although appointed by Lincoln in 1863, is a Democrat. There are now five Democrats and four Republicans on this bench, but it would puzzle anybody to tell with which party a judge sympathized from anything in his decisions.

The leading architects of the land, who have been working with patriotic zeal and disinterestedness to get a law passed by Congress which should put the office of supervising architect upon a basis that would enable it to command the best architectural talent of the country in the construction of public buildings, have discovered that somebody at Washington has suddenly thwarted their plans. Mr. Carrère, who declined Secretary Carlisle's offer of the position of supervising architect a few days ago, says the general impression among the architects and others interested in the proposed reform is that Logan Carlisle, son of the secretary, is the man who has blocked the movement. It has been known for a long time that the secretary's son was his "wicked partner" in the administration of the Treasury Department. No matter how virtuous may be the father's professions in regard to civil-service regulations, architectural or other reforms, if Logan takes a different view, the professions go to the wall. Logan is an enthusiastic spoilsman of the old school, and delights in nothing so much as snubbing reformers and blasting their hopes. His presence in the Treasury Department has been a constant scandal since his first appearance there. That he should be able to upset so desirable a reform as the adoption of a new and workable system for the supervising architect's office, a system which had been drawn up to meet and had met the approval both of the secretary and the assistant secretary, shows that he is a power for harm which ought to be destroyed even if it requires Presidential authority to rid the Treasury of the further scandal of his connection with it.

Poor, ignorant Gresham goes on his blundering way, getting one troublesome international question after another settled in the most stupid fashion. His Japanese treaty, for not negotiating which, and then for negotiating which, he was so justly denounced and exposed by the *Tribune*, has just been ratified by the Senate. Prior to that his Chinese treaty, covering so many points of international difficulty, was negotiated and ratified. In between came his dealings with Great Britain, resulting in the final abandonment of the English protectorate over the Mosquito Coast—a protectorate which had bothered all the really great minds in the State Department since Marcy's day, only to be disposed of for ever by an ignoramus. These three great achievements in two years by the most imbecile secretary that ever dismissed a subordinate and forced him to write for the *Tribune*, show us what might have been done in the same time by a man of average ability. One has to go back to the days of Hamilton Fish to find a parallel to what this laughing-stock of the nation has accomplished. It would add much to the general hilarity over his colossal and criminal blundering if he should succeed, in the next two years, in negotiating a treaty of arbitration with the European powers. That would complete and round out the career of a dunderhead in a way to make it wholly unique.

The Democratic managers in Tennessee seem bent upon carrying through their scheme for keeping the governorship from the Republican who received a majority of the votes on the face of the returns at the November election. Although the Constitution requires the turning over of the office to the man whose election is shown by the returns, and although it has been the invariable custom to follow this rule, the fact that the margin in favor of Evans, the Republican candidate, was very narrow has been too strong a temptation for the dominant ring, and the Democratic Legislature sustains Gov. Turney in the claim that he can hold over, pending a contest, the result of which is a foregone conclusion. It is encouraging to note that there are earnest protests from leading Democrats against this policy. A number of the most prominent party journals have opposed the scheme, and the editors evidently find abundant support among their readers. One of these newspapers, the *Nashville Banner*, publishes a very forcible letter against the conspiracy from Mr. John S. Bransford, a veteran Democrat, who makes an eloquent appeal to the young men of the party to arise in their strength and force the usurpers to yield. The *Banner* declares its conviction that "the overwhelming majority of Democrats oppose the revolutionary and indefensible policy pushed by a partisan lobby in the Legislature," and it calls

upon the people to make this opposition effective by letting members of the Legislature know their sentiments and demanding that the law-makers do their duty. It seems doubtful, however, whether the scheme can now be blocked. If it is carried out, it is altogether probable that the revolt of honest Democrats against the management of their party will give the Republicans a majority too large to be tampered with in 1896.

The effect of office in raising a man's opinion of himself has often been curiously illustrated in this city, where we have frequently seen an unknown person, drawn from the liquor shop or the petty clerkship, and converted into a "commissioner," suddenly begin to give tongue on taxation, or rapid transit, or "the wealth of New York," or other great public interests with all the authority of a Turgot or a Hamilton. But the working of the principle was probably never more curiously illustrated than in the case of Mr. Lexow. He was and is a comparatively young and quite unknown lawyer, who got elected to the State Senate from the village of Nyack, and was, we presume by Mr. T. C. Platt's suggestion, put on the committee to investigate the police of New York. This committee at the outset was certainly not intended, or, at all events, not expected, to do anything of consequence, and when it came down here very few people in New York had ever heard of Mr. Lexow. The work before the committee was done by Mr. Goff, and Mr. Lexow simply sat still and listened. But no sooner was it all over, and no sooner had the committee made a rather silly report, than the citizens of New York found that they had got, in the person of this obscure lawyer, a real master, who knew what was good for them better than they knew themselves, and disposed of men like Mayor Strong, James C. Carter, Dr. Parkhurst, Mr. Charles S. Smith, and Mr. Larocque, and the like, with contempt as a "gang of reformers," of whom he was "sick and tired." For mass-meetings got up by them to express the opinion of those who won the election on his bills he expressed similar scorn. But the most diverting of his utterances appeared in the *Tribune* on Sunday. Said he:

"I have personally felt the pulse of public sentiment during the last fortnight, speaking with all kinds of men, who represent every shade of feeling, and I have found the opinion in favor of a bi-partisan Police Board to be overwhelming."

Of course the only pulse he could feel "personally" is that of T. C. Platt. Nobody else of any weight would let such an absurd body get near him, least of all "public sentiment." When he talks of "public sentiment" he must mean that of Nyack, where, we have no doubt, he is a very big man; but why should the public sentiment of Nyack govern New York? and why should its great men take the place of our great men?

Gov. Morton, not being so great a man as Lexow of Nyack, is not able to share the latter's contempt for criticism, mass-meetings, and "gangs of reformers." He looked forward with so little pleasure to the prospect of being grouped with Platt and Lexow in the protests which the citizens of New York were to make in mass-meeting on Monday evening, that he sent for Lexow on Friday, and told him he must so amend one of his police bills as to give Mayor Strong the power to appoint the commission to reorganize the force, since he (the Governor) would not sign the bill if the appointing power were given to himself. As this was the point in the bill upon which Lexow had refused to yield a few days earlier, and in refusing had expressed his contempt for criticisms and mass-meetings, the Governor's demand was a hard blow to the great Senator; but Platt gave him orders to yield to it, and he did so as gracefully as possible. It should be said of the Governor that he has merely put in execution the purpose which he announced soon after the bill was introduced by Platt through Lexow. He was quick to see that Platt, in preferring him to Mayor Strong as the appointing power, not only violated the spirit of the Constitution, but held up the Governor before the people of the State as a more pliable Platt man than the mayor.

The anti-Platt meeting on Monday night was one of the most enthusiastic, one of the largest, and, as regards composition, one of the most thoughtful and intelligent, that have ever met in the Cooper Union, and the oratory was worthy of the meeting. Gen. Swayne's definition of the relation of party to good government was as effective a bit of political moralizing as has ever been heard on a platform; and Mr. Carter's description of the Lexow attempts at legislation as "the boldest, the most impudent, and the most inexcusable piece of audacity in proposed legislation ever made known in the city of New York, which has seen many instances which would almost come up to it," brought down the house. Dr. Parkhurst was never in happier vein, and must have recalled to many present the great days of Henry Ward Beecher, who was, at his best, undoubtedly the most telling political orator of the last generation, and, unless it be Dr. Parkhurst, has certainly no successor. When one, in listening to these orators, and looking at the meeting, remembered how much it represented of the intelligence, public spirit, and patriotism of New York city, how much of its trade, commerce, industry, and good citizenship, and by what great popular majorities its position about city government had been backed up at the polls, one could not help marvelling at the audacity and impudence, in Mr. Carter's words, of the opposition got up by Platt with his handful of obscure, uninfluential, and insignificant fol-

lowers. Platt against the city of New York, Lexow against 154,000 city voters, "Lou" Payn against the bar, Fish against the clergy, Fred Gibbs against the Chamber of Commerce, "Jake" Patterson against the Good Government clubs—sounds surely like a very unequal fight.

Gov. Morton's approval of the acts of the former State Civil-Service Board, placing all the employees of the State Department of Public Works under civil-service regulations, is causing deep pain to Platt's new head of the department, Mr. Aldridge of Rochester. The latter finds it very difficult to make a "clean sweep," with these regulations in force, for the present employees refuse to resign, and he is unable to find sufficient reasons for removing them. Nothing is so exasperating in the Governor as his tendency "to pander to the moral sentiment of the community," and Platt will be goaded into taking violent measures against him before long unless he develops more hardihood on the subject of public opinion. It is most irritating to have the Governor consent to place a Platt worker like Aldridge in office, and then place the office under regulations which make it impossible to use it in the interest of Platt politics.

The real trouble with the Governor lies in the fact that he is himself a citizen of New York city. He has spent many years of his life here, has held an honorable and influential position in its social and business circles, and knows decent public sentiment when he sees it. When he comes to this city he associates with the very people who make that sentiment, and he is the first Governor that we have had for many years of whom this can be said. When Hill came here while he was Governor, he met nobody except Croker, Gilroy, Grant, and the Tammany gang. He seldom went into a respectable private house, or had any intercourse with the respectable elements of the city population. The same thing was true to a great extent of Gov. Flower. Platt made a great blunder in not favoring the nomination of somebody from the rural districts, and we have no doubt that he sees his mistake now. He and Lexow and the rest of the Platt faction despise decent sentiment without much personal discomfort, because they seldom or never come in contact with it. That is what makes Lexow's statement that he has "personally felt the pulse of public sentiment" so delightfully ridiculous.

President Eliot's characterization of intercollegiate football, in his annual report, is the utterance of a man who refuses to surrender either his reason or his responsibility to a popular and passing craze. Out of the mouths of the apologists for the game, he condemns it. They would restrain on the day of the

great match the brute instincts which they have been sedulously cultivating through three months of training, by "employing more men to watch the players," so as to prevent foul and vicious playing. What sane man can dispute President Eliot's conclusion, that "a game which needs to be so watched is not fit for genuine sportsmen"? Nor will it be any easier for men whose livelihood or fame or animal gratifications do not depend upon the game, to disagree with his verdict that it is "unfit for college use." In this he speaks as the educator, mindful of his duty to the young men under his care and to their parents; farther on he speaks as an American citizen who would not see the intellectual and moral standards of his countrymen turned topsyturvy. The justice and the pungency of the following sentences it would be hard to overestimate:

"It should be distinctly understood, however, that the players themselves have little real responsibility for the evils of the game. They are swayed by a tyrannical public opinion—partly ignorant and partly barbarous—to the formation of which graduates and undergraduates, fathers, mothers and sisters, leaders of society, and the veriest gamblers and rowdies all contribute. The state of mind of the spectators at a hard-fought football match at Springfield, New York, or Philadelphia cannot but suggest the query how far these assemblages differ at heart from the throngs which enjoy the prize-fight, cock-fight, or bull-fight, or which in other centuries delighted in the sports of the Roman arena."

The London *Statist* has an interesting though conjectural estimate of the amount of British capital invested outside Great Britain. Last year the value of the imports into the United Kingdom exceeded the value of the exports by £134,000,000. The British vessels entering and clearing with cargoes during the year measured about 50,000,000 tons, which at 10s. per ton would represent earnings of £25,000,000; to this should be added the earnings of English ships which did not touch at English ports; also the commissions and insurances, amounting in all to £40,000,000. The foreign and colonial borrowings during the year amounted to £30,000,000, while advance orders for machinery, etc., would account for £6,000,000 more. Adding £36,000,000 to the £134,000,000 excess of imports and deducting the £40,000,000 referring to the shipping, we have as a remainder £130,000,000. Large amounts of capital invested abroad were brought home to London, but these withdrawals were offset, the writer thinks, by the interest which became due in 1894, but which the English capitalists did not receive, because of default. Next, the net imports of coin and bullion of all kinds amounted to £10,000,000, making the total assumed receipts on capital invested abroad £140,000,000. Capitalized at 5 per cent. this sum would represent an investment of British capital outside Great Britain amounting to nearly 3,000 millions sterling, or fifteen billions of dollars, which probably understates the real amount.

"REASONABLE WAGES."

MR. CARROLL D. WRIGHT has an article in the current number of the *Forum* on "Steps towards Government Control of Railroads," in which he maintains that the bill now pending in Congress, providing that railroads shall pay "just and reasonable wages" to their employees, and providing for the submission of all differences between them to "a properly constituted tribunal," is a step, though a subordinate one, in "the silent revolution now going on," which is finally to place the Government in control of the railroads. The principal step is the pooling bill, which provides that charges to shippers shall be reasonable. The former bill, he declares, will make railroad employees "quasi-public servants"; and "though as a rule he would not allow the Government to fix the wages of railroad employees," nevertheless he holds that, "inasmuch as it is its right and duty to prevent the interruption of interstate commerce and the obstruction of the mails," in the exercise of this right it "ought to have a voice in making terms and adjusting the conditions of the employment of employees engaged in such service." Curiously enough, too, he declares that the Chicago strike, which did not arise out of a dispute between railroads and their employees at all, "must be recognized as a factor in producing the changes in the federal law now going on," for it "is dissipating a good deal of the haze which has hung before the eyes of both labor and capital." He also maintains that such Government interference on behalf of railroad labor would be a parallel to the Government interference, through the pooling and interstate commerce bill, on behalf of merchants and shippers.

Now, it is not a little singular that so acute a man as Mr. Wright should not perceive the radical difference between Government interference on behalf of shippers and Government interference on behalf of labor, which lies in the fact that in the one case the Government controls, or can control, both parties, and in the other it controls only one. It can make the shippers pay whatever the railroads charge, because the railroads furnish their only means of transportation, and it can make the railroads charge only reasonable rates, because it can punish the officers or remove them for disobedience. But although it may compel the railroads to pay "reasonable wages," it cannot compel the employees to consider them reasonable, or to accept them. In spite of Mr. Wright's experience with the Chicago strike, there is one bit of haze it has not removed from his mind. He is still, apparently, under the impression that laborers would not or could not strike if a Government tribunal said the wages were reasonable, or that in any dispute with the corporations labor was in the wrong. If the Government decided against labor, it would have no power whatever to enforce its decisions or make the men work on terms prescribed by it; and if they refused to abide

by its decisions, as they undoubtedly frequently would, it would have to keep the roads open by military force, just as it did last summer, and let the railroads get new labor as best they could. Never was there an odder hallucination than the notion that laborers would not strike if they were called "quasi-public servants." They would strike under that appellation just as readily as under their present one, whenever they wanted something which "the properly constituted tribunal" refused to give them. Where the Chicago strike was illuminating was in showing the length to which "organized labor" is prepared to go in asserting its own claims against the rest of the community; for in that case the railroads of the country were blocked, and the mails interrupted, in order to compel a private carriage-builder in one State to make concessions to his employees which he said he could not afford. In that strike no special reverence was shown for "Government," any more than for any other power. It was treated like any other "foe of labor," *i. e.*, like anybody else who said the demands of labor were unreasonable.

Moreover, all interference of Government between railroads and their employees would necessarily be the interference of politicians between a large body of voters and a small body of property-holders. Anybody who supposes that under these circumstances the large body of voters would not generally get the best of the controversy, is not familiar with the history of labor strikes in this country. It may be laid down as a general rule that nobody is so competent to define the term "reasonable wages" as the persons who are to pay them, acting in concert with the persons who are to receive them. What is reasonable wages in any particular business depends partly on the cost of production and partly on the state of the market. No outsider could know much as to the effect of either of these agencies on the rate, even if he were not a politician or a man with a "political future." A permanent tribunal for fixing the rate of wages would, therefore, either have to consist of representatives of the parties to the bargain or of incompetents. As a representative of the Government it would be a ridiculous body. In considering it, too, we have to take into account the present labor notion of reasonableness. The general notion of labor to-day is that it is entitled to all profits, and ought not to be asked to pay anything for superintendence. It thinks the unions could run the roads under the supervision of a grand master-workman. What Mr. Wright and those who agree with him should favor, if they wish to deal fairly with the property-holders, is the purchase of the railroads at a fair valuation. It is only as Government property that Government can manage them at all, and as such they would probably be run, like the post-office, without reference to profits,

and the taxpayers would make wages "reasonable."

Mr. Wright and many other good people are trying to make legislation and governmental machinery supply the place of knowledge, good sense, and self-control on the part of the class of the community from which railroad employees are taken. This class is at present governed almost absolutely by very ignorant and unprincipled leaders, to whom disputes with employers are useful, as tending to magnify their office and display their power, and exalt what is called the laboring class as against the rest of the community. Men like Debs are "tickled to death" by being able to block the national highways, and suspend business, and compel the Government to treat with them, or inquire into them, on a footing of equality. The proposed legislation, of which Mr. Wright approves, would not diminish the importance of this class one iota. On the contrary, it would increase it. The countenance given by such articles as Mr. Wright's to the assumption that in blocking the highways of a great nation in order to make Pullman arbitrate, Debs was more than half right, and was removing "haze from the public mind," impedes the process of education by which alone the labor problem can be solved.

A USEFUL DEMONSTRATION.

COL. WARING has been at the head of the Street-Cleaning Department for a little more than three weeks, yet in that short time he has forced from even Tammany critics the concession that the streets of the city have been cleaned as they have not been cleaned before in the memory of the present generation. He has had several snow-storms to contend with, and has grappled with them in a manner to astonish the oldest inhabitant. The snow has disappeared from the principal streets and avenues of the city in a manner which, after our experience with Brennan and Andrews, has seemed positively miraculous. Citizens have been astonished on waking in the morning to find that the snow which filled the streets in front of their houses at nightfall had vanished in the night. The unfamiliar spectacle of gangs of able-bodied sweepers and shovellers really working like other laboring men, while a boss stood over them directing and prodding them, has caused the casual wayfarer to pause and ask himself if his eyes were not deceiving him. Nothing of the kind had ever been seen by him before. He had been familiar with the gangs of infirm and decrepit creatures, never seen anywhere else save on park benches, who held brooms and shovels for no other purpose than to lean upon them and discuss questions of politics and government. The new gangs are made up, apparently, of less thoughtful men, but they do more street-cleaning, and their advent is one of the wonders of the period.

And how has this wonder been accomplished? Simply by treating the question of cleaning the streets as a plain business matter, to be met and executed by business methods. Col. Waring has done nothing more than put "politics" out of the department. Instead of asking an applicant what his "pull" was, before "putting him on a broom," he has inquired into his capacity to work. He gave away the secret of his method when he said, in response to a critic who had spoken of the "positions within his gift" as commissioner, "There are no positions in my 'gift.' No position in the department is going to be given away to anybody; a full equivalent in work will be returned for it." By following out this principle in all branches of his department Col. Waring has succeeded in a fortnight's time in so reorganizing his force that it is really cleaning the city. Could anything be simpler than the means by which this wonder has been accomplished? It has not cost a penny more than the old method of not cleaning the streets cost. On the contrary, we believe it is a fact that the colonel finds the appropriation ample for not only cleaning the streets but keeping them clean.

Yet when Col. Waring's appointment was first announced, the city was fairly crowded with wisacres who were wagging their heads over his foredoomed failure. They were absolutely sure that he could not succeed. Why? Oh, because nobody except a visionary reformer or dreaming mugwump believed that the streets of New York could be thoroughly cleaned. Were not the streets of other great cities of the world kept clean? Possibly they were, but there was something peculiar about the streets of New York. The pavements were different from those of other cities, and then look at the trucks: no other city allowed trucks to be stabled in the streets. Was not there a law against such stabling? Possibly, but you could not enforce it, you know. Could not the trucks be moved or the pavement under them be swept by a competent force? Ah, there you hit the point. You could never get in New York a competent force. Why? Because you could never quite remove the department from politics, and even if you could you would still be unable to get such a class of men as they have abroad. Finally, you must remember that we are living in America, not Europe, and must take things as we find them.

This state of mind, and it was as general as it was tiresome, was the result of years of contemplation of political street-cleaning. The task which had never been surmounted came to be looked upon as insurmountable. While boasting ourselves to be the most indomitable and ingenious people on the face of the earth, we were willing to confess that the cleaning of our streets was a problem of such superhuman difficulty that we must give it up. The daily spectacle of private contractors cleaning separate blocks and groups of

blocks perfectly, did not shake this doubt of our capacity. Cleaning the whole city was merely applying to every block the simple methods which succeeded in a single block, but we quailed before such a tremendous generalization, and said no, it is too much to expect of us; it cannot be done, and if you were not a thoroughly impracticable person—a theorist, in fact—you would see it could not be done. Well, it has been done, and by a theorist, too.

Col. Waring has conferred an unspeakable boon upon the community by shutting off this refrain from the chorus of "well-nows" who are always sure that, however useful plain common sense may be in other matters, it is utterly useless in politics. He said at the outset that cleaning streets seemed to him to be, after all, only a human operation, requiring no supernatural powers for its success, and he has demonstrated as much. He was the first appointee of Mayor Strong on the platform of non-partisan, business administration of municipal government, and his success shows the practical wisdom of that platform. For the first time in a quarter of a century at least, the experiment has been made of running a great municipal department, with a large force of men, on business principles and without political interference, and the result has been that a task which was given up as insurmountable under twenty or thirty years of political administration has been accomplished triumphantly within three weeks. That is an achievement which ought to close the mouths of the "well-nows" for all time.

There is something more in this triumph of common sense than a defeat of "practical politics." Col. Waring well says that the true measure of the health of a community is not its death-rate, but the health-rate; that there may be a vast amount of sickness and of costly disability with a very low death-rate, but that a high health-rate is an unfailing index of good sanitary conditions and insures a low death-rate as a matter of course. His cleaning of the streets does not stop, as Tammany's did, short of the tenement-house districts. He cleans the whole city, and in so doing brings one part of our municipal administration to the level of civilization for the first time in many years. Nothing could do more for the health of the whole city than this, and nothing carry more happiness to the homes of the poor. We are at last doing our simplest duty to the most helpless portion of our population in one direction, and the example should be followed in all others. Honest and economical administration should follow clean and healthy streets, in order that the burden of living may be made as easy as possible for the poor. This can be done if Mayor Strong is given the power to fill every municipal office with men of the Waring type, who will apply the same common-sense methods to all branches of the city

service. The mayor is ready to do this, but Boss Platt refuses to give him the power. Let us send Platt about his business, and usher in the full era of common sense in city government.

ORDER OUT OF CHAOS.

If you want a thing done, says the proverb, do it yourself. Acting on this principle, Mr. John G. Ames, the accomplished superintendent of documents, Department of the Interior, has produced a 'Comprehensive Index of the Publications of the United States Government, 1889-1893.' "I have repeatedly urged that provision be made by Congress," he says in his letter of submittal to the secretary of the interior, "for the preparation of such an index, not only of documents yet to be printed, but also of those already published. As Congress, however, failed from session to session to make such provision, I took upon myself, about three years ago, the task, additional to the current and prescribed work of my office, of preparing an index of the documents issued during the period covered by the Fifty first and Fifty second Congresses." Mr. Ames's chief, Secretary Hoke Smith, proved not unappreciative of this disinterested labor, giving it, along with his imprimatur, his "heartly commendation," and the assurance that "it will be welcomed as a most acceptable contribution to this class of literature by members of Congress, by officers of the Government, and by the public at large."

Time will show whether the average congressman, whose imagination was too feeble to make the mere mention of such an index secure his vote for it, as for a measure of public utility and even necessity, will appreciate the work now that it is done, and will order its continuance by a regular force. No intelligent person, in or out of Congress, can examine Mr. Ames's Index without blessing him for it, and seeing in it a help to consistent and thoroughly informed legislation and much else besides. For one thing, it makes the public document no longer lumber in our public libraries, but a part of the general circulation. Consider only that it renders our consular reports available, and that it must react on these favorably by encouraging consuls to put forth their best endeavors for a better destination than the waste-basket. All these reports are entered topically, and possess often a curious if not always an immediately practical interest. Consul Wildman, for example, at Singapore, defines the local disease called *beriberi*, noting its symptoms and treatment. Consul Griffin, at Sydney, treats of the rabbit pest in Australasia. Similar domestic topics are the ramie industry in America, and the introduction of the *Jeerya purchasi* and its parasites into California. Indeed, there is hardly any subject which we need be surprised to meet with, since important papers in the

publications of the Smithsonian Institution, the National Museum, the American Historical Association, etc., are entered. Thus, we find slavery in the Territories discussed by the late President Welling, bibliographical notes on Eliot's Indian Bible, by J. C. Pilling, a history of the Sutro tunnel, accounts of lumpy jaw in cattle and of smokeless powder, a recommendation that the slums of cities be investigated by the Commissioner of Labor, a resolution looking to the better ventilation of the dining-room of the House of Representatives, etc., etc.

The political history of the period is, of course, accurately reflected in this Index. Silver and the silver-pool investigation, lotteries, the eight-hour law, the Homestead troubles, the Chilian imbroglio, Chinese immigration, the movement to elect Senators by the people, the World's Columbian Exposition, the experiments to control rainfall, the International American Conference—such are a few of the more conspicuous rubrics. Each department of the Government naturally has its separate list of publications displayed, as have its bureaus and functions—lighthouses, fish and fisheries, and the rest. To be remarked especially are the long lists of findings by the Court of Claims and cases referred to it (more than seven pages of names altogether); of pensions recommended (thirteen pages in double columns); of public buildings recommended (a page and more); of bridges recommended to be authorized; of recommended corrections in the military record (two and a half pages of names); of public documents recommended to be printed. Every name, personal or geographical, in these lists is entered again in the general alphabet. Finally, the writers of papers, the authors of consular reports, the Senators and Representatives who report for committees, the cabinet officers and heads of bureaus, are all grouped in a Personal Index, which completes the serviceability of this admirable key.

Mr. Ames's conception of his Index, which we wish we could describe in his own words, seems to us very just, and the execution of it as nearly perfect as could be expected. Every journalist ought to desire to possess, and every library ought to be supplied with, this volume—a quarto of less than 500 pages—which should be the first of a series carried punctually forward from year to year, or from Congress to Congress, or in four-year periods, as the best judgment of experts may determine, and also gradually extended backwards. The present compiler's endeavors to regulate the shocking waste in the distribution of public documents are well known. With the new value given to them by this Index, it ought to be possible to establish once for all a system of exchange and sale which should greatly reduce the expenditure for public printing. The new Public Documents bill will do much to prevent reduplication of documents. Many, says Mr. Ames, "are published as

Executive or miscellaneous documents of the Senate or House of Representatives; again, in a different style of binding and with a different title, as reports or publications of an Executive department; and again, with still another title, as reports of a particular bureau or office of the department." Meantime, this medley is threaded by his Index, for which, in closing, we join our thanks to those of the secretary of the interior.

MR. ABBEY'S DECORATIONS FOR THE BOSTON LIBRARY.

LONDON, January 19, 1895.

THERE is no doubt that the achievement of American artists has been great since the memorable year 1876: one has but to turn to the work of individual painter and sculptor, illustrator and engraver, for proof. But hitherto little has been accomplished in the way of mural decoration.

If this is, in a measure, because of the small chance offered to these artists, the neglect of the art is certainly not peculiar to America and Americans. Accomplishment has been only less limited in European countries, where the existence of fine traditions makes the neglect all the more unpardonable. The Italian rests upon his laurels, satisfied with the past's masterpieces. The Englishman, with sporadic enterprise, has allowed Whistler and Burne-Jones to decorate a few of his private houses, and Ford Madox-Brown at least one of his town halls—at Manchester—and he has taken pride to himself for giving Leighton and Poynter the freedom of South Kensington's Museum walls, with results the most disastrous, for letting Richmond loose in St. Paul's to experiment with mosaic, and for yielding other of his famous churches to the irresponsible amateur. Austrians and Hungarians rejoice in the flamboyant outbursts of Makart and Munkacsy, in whose hands, surely, decoration has gone quite mad, while the Frenchman alone has reason to congratulate himself on commissioning his great men, now Puvis de Chavannes, now Besnard, to cover with their designs the walls of public buildings in Paris and the provinces. It is because the record of modern mural decoration the world over has been so meagre that more than a purely local or American interest is attached to the work of Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey for the Boston Public Library. Its importance in America can scarcely be exaggerated. A step in the right direction, doubtless, was made in Chicago; but the ephemeral nature of the buildings decorated, and the short time granted to artists for the task, necessarily detracted greatly from the value of the decoration done. Boston, practically, has supplied the first opportunity for serious effort.

A portion of Mr. Sargent's ceiling was exhibited in last spring's Academy, when I had occasion to speak of it. Now, Mr. Abbey is showing, in one of the smaller London galleries, so much of his frieze as is finished. Of course, as was the case with the ceiling—well arranged though it was for exhibition—the frieze cannot but lose from being seen in its present crude surroundings of red-draped walls. The designs, meant to be incorporated with a definite architectural composition, and to be placed at a certain height (nine feet) in a certain light, now hang at a much lower level than is eventually intended, in a different light, and with absolutely no architectural framing.

However, it is possible to form a very fair idea of the scope and accomplishment of Mr. Abbey's decorative scheme. The subject, as the one design sent to Chicago explained, is the Quest of the Holy Grail. One may be inclined to question this choice as utterly irrelevant. It is not easy to understand the relation of Holy Grail to Boston Library. Of old, the artist, in decorating walls of church, or palace, or public hall, went for inspiration to appropriate holy legend or historic association, as did Sodoma in Monte Oliveto, Pinturicchio in Siena for instance, or in Venice, Titian, Tintoretto, and Veronese, the greatest of all the great masters of the art; and no one can doubt that colonial Boston would have furnished Mr. Abbey with more than one theme made to his hand. Or again, the modern, with Puvis de Chavannes, is content with allegory that belongs to no special period or tradition, and is without archaeological responsibility. However, the paramount consideration is, not subject, but treatment. And it is in this respect that Mr. Abbey has the greatest surprise in store for his admirers. That he would reveal the utmost research and learning, that he would be accurate and careful in detail, that his archaeology would be beyond reproach, one knew beforehand. But one was not prepared to find that, in working for the first time on so colossal a scale, he could still succeed in lending to his figures the same elegance and dignity, to his composition the same grace and spaciousness, that have ever distinguished his black-and-white drawings.

The designs so far completed are five in number: Galahad, as a mere babe, visited by an angel bearing the Holy Grail; as the youthful knight, after long vigil, ready to set forth upon the quest; installed by Joseph of Arimathea in the Seat Perilous of the Round Table; with the other knights, receiving the episcopal benediction for the search, now formally approved by Arthur; in the hall of Amfortas, the spell-bound, watching the Procession of the Grail.

It is in the first of these that greatest concession has been made to decorative conventions. A flat pattern of blue and gold, treated as so much wall-paper, is background for the nun who upholds the child and the wide-winged angel-bearer of the Grail. The figures are, however, rendered with absolute realism, so that they seem literally cut out from this conventional background, upon which they cast no shadow and the nun by no possibility can find resting-place. Here, Mr. Abbey, in blending realism and convention, has attempted the impossible, with inevitable failure as result. The figures are delightfully drawn, the pattern is skilfully executed, but the combination proves strikingly incongruous. In the four other designs he has broken away from all concessions and is frankly realistic. In fact, he is to be compared in his work not to a man like Puvis de Chavannes or Burne-Jones, with whom he has nothing in common, but rather to Besnard or Jean-Paul Laurens; though probably he has been more directly influenced by Sargent and Helleu.

In line and arrangement the Round Table, shown in Chicago, is best, with its sweeping curves of white angels and golden haloes; but one cannot help wondering if much of the beautiful detail will not be lost when the whole is seen from the proposed height. The three other designs have an architectural motive, suggested largely, I believe, by the wonderful old Romanesque work at Le Puy. In composition none surpasses the fourth, with its stately group of kneeling knights, each resting on

his shield and holding aloft spear and banner. But in freedom of handling and general technical execution the fifth and last is by far the most successful. Nothing could be more majestic and impressive than the figure of the pale Galahad in his flowing red robes, as he stands by the sleeping king; movement could not be more rhythmically expressed than in the procession of strange, mystic beings; while, simply as a piece of masterly painting, the group of low-bent figures to the left is most remarkable. Indeed, it seems a sacrifice of a fine picture to make this design wholly subservient to decorative ends.

Although one may criticise Mr. Abbey's frieze, it is safe to say that no American except Mr. Sargent could produce anything to compete with it; and this one ventures to assert even after having seen the decorations at Chicago and much of Mr. Vedder's later work. In carrying out a purely decorative convention, it may be that Mrs. MacMonnies is more than a strong rival, though in technical proficiency she is hardly his equal. But if Mr. Abbey does not fulfil the decorative conventions now accepted, that is no reason to declare him in the wrong. Has not Albert Dürer recorded the severity with which he was taken to task by contemporary Venetians for daring to defy tradition? However this may be, it is certain that Mr. Abbey and Mr. Sargent between them are giving the initiative to mural decoration in America, and that the Boston Library, in commissioning them, has inaugurated a most notable departure. The work now needs but the active coöperation of Mr. Whistler, who already has been invited to take his share in it.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE PRESERVATION OF CARLYLE'S HOUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted to enlist the aid of the *Nation* towards making more generally known in the United States the movement which has been set on foot in England for the purchase and preservation of the house which Thomas Carlyle inhabited in Chelsea for more than forty years? This movement has the support of many distinguished men; at its head is Mr. Leslie Stephen, known to many Americans not only as an eminent author, but as the originator of a similar movement for placing a memorial to James Russell Lowell in England.

The amount required for the purchase and repair of the house, for insuring its being kept in good condition for the future, and for the custody and exhibition of the personal relics of Carlyle, of which it is to be the depository, will probably be from £2,500 to £3,000. The commencement made is by no means discouraging, but it is felt that America might aid very powerfully, not merely by subscriptions, but by the moral influence of example.

I need say nothing to the readers of the *Nation*, either in defence of the general principle that the vestiges of great men ought to be cherished and preserved, or of its particular application to Carlyle. Still less need I seek to extenuate those passages in his conduct as regards the United States which are undoubtedly subjects for regret. His faults, as with all men of unusual force, were inherent in and inseparable from his great qualities. *Si non errasset, fecerat ille minus*. I will only ask

leave to mention three considerations which might not so readily occur to the mind: (1) the extent to which America is herself responsible for Carlyle by the recognition she accorded to him, through Emerson and others, when he had as yet met with but little in his own country; (2) Carlyle's own selection of Harvard College as the recipient of his library; (3) the significance of international coöperation for such purposes as a sign of the times, and its happy effect in promoting amity and good feeling. We have recently placed memorials of Longfellow and Lowell in English public edifices, and have been repaid by the public dedication of a bust of Keats, a movement originated in America.

I have only to add that the treasurer of the fund is an American gentleman long resident in England, B. F. Stevens, Esq., known for his publications on Columbus and Franklin, by whom subscriptions will be received at 4 Trafalgar Square, London.

I remain yours very truly,

RICHARD GARNETT.

BRITISH MUSEUM, January 19, 1895.

THE KANSAS MORTGAGE-REDEMPTION LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 24 you refer, in an editorial, to the recent mortgage-redemption law of Kansas as a Populist measure and a result of the Populist rule in Kansas. The *Nation* is usually well informed and accurate in its political history, but it seems to have absorbed the impression, general throughout the East, that all of the vagaries which have prevailed in Kansas in recent years are due to the Populists. The fact is that the Populists have never been in control in Kansas, excepting in the executive department. At one session of the Legislature the Populists had the House, while the Republicans had the Governor and the Senate. At the next session the Republicans had the House and the Populists had the Governor and the Senate. The responsibility for legislation, therefore, rests equally on these two parties. Further than that, the mortgage-redemption law of which you speak did not originate with the Populists. It was introduced in the House by J. F. Grunlee, a Republican member from Hutchinson, a wholesale grocer and Republican leader, and is commonly known as the "Grunlee mortgage law." It passed the Republican House by an almost unanimous vote, and was sent thence to the Populist Senate.

I may further mention the fact that at the previous session of the Legislature, when the Populists had the House, the House passed a much more reasonable and desirable mortgage law, which was killed by the Republican Senate, not because it was too radical, but because it originated with the Populists. The Republicans, during this period, were vying with the Populists in catering to the same sentiment. This mortgage law has been championed by the Republican press of the State as a Republican measure.

There are some Republicans and some Democrats in Kansas who have not been in sympathy with the hatred of creditors and capital that has been raging there for the past few years, but the Populists have not been perceptibly ahead of the Republicans in promoting this sentiment.

JOSEPH WITHROW.

TOPEKA, KAN., January 28, 1895.

PITHECANTHROPUS ERECTUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have not been able yet to obtain a copy of Dubois's memoir on "*Pithecanthropus Erectus*," mentioned in the *Nation* for January 17 (p. 52), but the good summary and copies of illustrations published by Prof. Marsh in the *American Journal of Science* for February (pp. 144-147, pl. 2) have furnished data sufficient at least for a suggestion. Your notice well calls the find "remains of a pre-eminent hominine anthropoid." I cannot, indeed, find any generic differences between the remains and the corresponding parts of a man. The reference of such remains to a distinct family—*Pithecanthropidae*—is, therefore, baseless; no differential characters have been given, nor can be given, from the material observed. The differences observable between *Hominidae* and *Simiidae* are very slight, independently of the psychical ones and their direct coördinates in the skull; there is no room for a family intermediate between the two. What may be the value of the differences between the so-called *Pithecanthropus* and *Homo*, I am not prepared to say. I will confess, however, that I cannot appreciate any. Of course, the exostosis of the femur was pathological.

Permit me further to correct a misconception respecting the views held by American palaeontologists. None of authority, so far as I know, deny the close relationship of man to the *Simiidae* and the derivation of man from a primitive form of that family. The only contention of any importance is whether man and the *Simiidae* are derived from a lemuroidean stock directly or from the monkeys. Under such conditions, then, the view that man is derived from a form intermediate between existing *Simiids* and man would not be at all "at variance with that held by some of the American palaeontologists."

THEO. GILL.

COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY,
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 2, 1895.

Notes.

G. F. PUTNAM'S SONS have in preparation an edition of Marryat's "*Midshipman Easy*" with designs by representative American artists; the Baroness Tautpneus's "*At Odds*," uniform with her "*Initials*" and "*Quits*"; and the "*Richelieu*" and "*Agincourt*" of G. P. R. James, which may be followed by other selections from the same voluminous novelist.

The fourth of the five volumes of Prof. John Bach McMaster's "*History of the People of the United States*" will be issued directly by D. Appleton & Co.

Macmillan & Co. announce a translation, by Dr. A. C. Porter, of Strasburger, Noll, Schenck, and Schimper's "*Lehrbuch der Botanik*"; also, a translation of Dr. Ernest von Halle's report on American Trusts to the Verein für Sozial-Politik, thoroughly revised and enlarged; and a biography of Adam Smith, by John Rae.

Henry Holt & Co.'s February announcements include Ten Brink's five "*Lectures on Shakspeare*," translated by Julia Franklin; and "*Jack o' Doon*," a romantic tale of the North Carolina coast, by Maria Beale.

Roberts Bros., Boston, publish this week a new edition of five of the late Robert Louis Stevenson's works in as many volumes, uniform in size and binding, including "*Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes*" and "*Treasure Island*"; the fourth volume of Renan's "*History of the People of Israel*"; and "*The*

Woman Who Did,' by Grant Allen. Later, 'The Sons of Ham,' by Louis Pendleton; and 'Prince Zaleski,' by M. P. Shiel.

'Four Years of Novel Reading,' edited by Prof. Richard G. Moulton of the University of Chicago, will shortly be issued by D. C. Heath & Co.

'We Three and Troddles,' by R. Andum, with eighty-three illustrations in silhouette by A. C. Gould, is an English humorous work about to be published by Henry Altemus, Philadelphia.

Ginn & Co. have in press for the University of Pennsylvania 'A Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics,' by Prof. D. G. Brinton, and 'The Rhymes of Gower's Confessio Amantis,' by Prof. Morton W. Easton.

B. F. Stevens, London, will shortly publish a small foolscap quarto volume, by Mr. Henry Harrisse, under the title of 'Americus Vesputius: A Critical and Documentary Review of Two Recent English Books concerning that Navigator.' This bibliographical and historical survey will show the part taken by the merchant princes of Augsburg and Nuremberg in the celebrated expedition of Francesco d'Almeida to India in 1505, and will demonstrate when, where, and by whom, in what language and in what form, the alleged Vesputian 'Reyse van Lissebone' of 1508 was originally written.

The seventh volume of *Garden and Forest* (New York), conducted by Prof. Sargent of the Arnold Arboretum; the sixth volume of that "entertaining magazine for lawyers," the *Green Bag* (Boston Book Co.), edited by Horace W. Fuller; and the twenty-fourth volume of the *Overland Monthly*, edited by Rounseville Wildman (San Francisco), have come to hand. Each abounds in illustrations, each in its own sphere or place is without a rival, and we can but wish a long life to each.

In a pamphlet of thirty-six pages entitled 'Note on the Ancient Mexican Calendar System,' and printed by Schulze in Dresden, Mrs. Zelia Nuttall publishes the most recent results of her researches in this difficult and complicated province of Aztec archaeology. She calls attention to the institution of the *macuiltlanquitzli*, or market, which was held every five days, and to the important fact that "the regular rotation of market-days and the day of enforced rest every twenty days were the prominent and permanent features of the civil solar year." Furthermore, "the religious-festival periods were partly movable and partly ruled by the central ritual year contained in each solar year." There is also a table showing the dates in the Julian calendar to which the days that begin the different Mexican years correspond. The substance of this pamphlet was communicated to the Tenth International Congress of Americanists, which met in Stockholm last summer. Fuller information on the points discussed will be given in a larger work now in press.

We are glad to see printed by itself Prof. Edward S. Morse's address, "On the Importance of Good Manners," delivered last year at Vassar College on Founder's Day. It is in large measure a criticism of our public and private manners by comparison with those of the Japanese, and may be recommended for reading in schools or for circulation in city quarters where the defilement of the streets is most outrageous. The little pamphlet can be procured for five cents apiece, or fifty cents a dozen, of H. B. Hastings, Box 250, Boston.

The lists of works on Korea, Japan, and China contained in the January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library are timely and

valuable. A general reference, under the sub-heads Commerce, Manufactures, and Education, to the "Consular Reports" published monthly by the State Department, and giving much useful information on these and kindred subjects, would have made them more complete. The illustrations of this number are twelve views of old buildings and streets in the north end of Boston. The library was opened in its magnificent new quarters on February 1.

The fifth number of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State (bearing date May, 1894, though just issued), opens with a list indicating the arrangement of the papers of Madison, Jefferson, Hamilton, Monroe, and Franklin—the last collection being the pious work of Henry Stevens, who supplied "a perfect typewritten copy of every piece, made to correspond in matter to the originals." Here is the draft of Franklin's famous letter to Strahan, July 5, 1775, ending: "You are now my Enemy,—and I am, Yours, B. Franklin." There follows a continuation of the index to "Chapter A," miscellaneous papers of the Revolutionary epoch, which is not bad reading. The entries are mostly of writers, but are sometimes topical, like "Women in Office," a memorial of Mary Katherine Goddard of Baltimore, Dec. 23, 1789, asking to be reinstated in the post-office, which she had held for fourteen years. The appendix (or two-thirds of the Bulletin) consists of a literal print of the U. S. Constitution and of its ratifications.

Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman's article in the February number of the *New England Magazine* on "A New Birth [Wanted] in the City and State" is remarkable chiefly for its assertion of a steady decline of late years in the quality of the delegation to the Massachusetts Legislature from the cities of the State, from Boston in particular. "Greatly and sadly deteriorated" is his phrase for the metropolis. His belief that "the managing politicians would be overjoyed to strengthen their tickets by the use of well-known and influential names" seems naïve enough, with Dr. Everett's experience fresh in our minds. A paper on the famous Lowell Institute of Boston ends with a complete list of lecturers and topics from the commencement in 1839. It goes well with an instructive review of "The Rise and Decline of the New England Lyceum System," by the Rev. E. P. Powell. Mr. Chadwick's historical sketch of the Harvard Divinity School can be read with pleasure even by Calvinists, and is the literary feature of the number.

The *Sketch*, the London newspaper which is published in the interest of the music-hall (as the variety-show is called in England), and which many libraries have subscribed for under the impression that it is purely a journal of literature and art, reaches a degree of indecency in some of its late issues which ought to insure its being removed from the shelves of rooms in which self-respecting folk are wont to congregate.

After nearly half a century of useful corporate life as a college exclusively for young men, Beloit College, Wis., has, by unanimous vote of its Board of Trustees, decided to admit (in and after October, 1895) women to all its regular courses and degrees—except to the preparatory department, technically known as "The Academy." This question has, it appears, been before the authorities for several years, and President Eaton, in making his announcement (January 16) of the proposed change to the present students—"interrupted by an applause which promised to break into

cheers"—explained in a very manly way the reasons which had induced the Board to reverse the tradition of the past fifty years. While specific announcements of details are not yet issued, it is unofficially stated that the women will be instructed in the same classes with the men, but that "the woman's department will receive its appropriate development, with an organic life of its own worthy of Beloit College," and that, as soon as funds are available, dormitories for the new students will be erected on a woman's campus.

Although one of the youngest of British Universities (chartered in 1833), Durham could hardly discard without a struggle the conservative instincts which she inherited from ecclesiastical forbears. It is therefore matter for encouragement that, at its last convocation (in December, 1894), held in the venerable Castle Hall, Durham University voted a petition to the Queen in Council, praying her to grant power to confer degrees on women. It appears that in 1881 "regulations" were passed in convocation providing that, under certain specified restrictions, female students might be admitted to a degree in Arts; as a matter of fact no further action was taken, and the University was advised that its charter gave it no authority to grant degrees to women. The fact that there are at present more than 180 women students at the Durham College of Science doubtless partly explains the clause in the petition which recites, in explanation of the request, that since 1881 "the demand . . . has largely increased, and that the need for providing for the granting of degrees to women in all faculties, except that of divinity, has become widely felt." The votes in favor of setting the seal of the University to the petition were 17 to 1, and the result "was received with applause and hurrah."

Dr. Hans Reusch, director of the Geological Survey of Norway, gives an account of the "Norwegian coast plain" in his last annual report, illustrating its extension along the Atlantic border by an outline map. Unlike our Atlantic coastal plain, which consists of gently sloping marine sediments, once beneath the sea and now elevated to form part of the continental border, the coastal plain of Norway is regarded as the result of long-continued denudation, by which the resistant and disorderly rocks of the Scandinavian mountain-peninsula have been worn down close to sea-level along the Atlantic margin. Here and there remnant mountains still surmount the plain; and in consequence of a general elevation since its production, numerous valleys have been eroded in its once even surface. Fjords result from a partial submergence of these valleys, more or less modified by glacial action. Dr. Reusch calls attention to the control exerted by the coastal plain on the distribution of population; hundreds of thousands, out of the two millions of Norwegians, live on this surface of moderate relief. A brief abstract of the original paper is given by Dr. Reusch in the *Chicago Journal of Geology*.

Speaking of the relation of coastal forms to the conditions of population, mention may be made of a recent brief article by Dr. Fr. Ratzel, in which he shows that the ratio of area to periphery of a country constitutes only one peculiarity, and not the fundamental peculiarity, of coastal form, in spite of the importance that has been attributed to this ratio by many geographers. Ratzel instances our northeastern coast as an example of a very irregular land outline, but one which has nevertheless not sufficed to determine the seat of large populations, because of the comparative-

ly rugged and inhospitable interior. To the latter relation, therefore, Ratzel would give greater prominence in the discussion of coast-lines than it has usually received. The article referred to is in the *Jahresbericht* of the Geographical Society of Munich.

We are requested to state that contributions to the projected English Dialect Dictionary from this side of the water should be sent through the American Dialect Society, of which Mr. E. H. Babbitt, Columbia College, is secretary.

—Vicarious globe-trotting—to Oudeypore or Guayaquil and Panama—is as a matter of course included in the entertainment *Harper's Magazine* offers to February readers. "New York Colonial Privateers" and "French Fighters in Africa" also make part of the programme; the handsome periods of Mr. Janvier's resonant style setting off the slightness of matter in the one article as Frederic Remington's brilliant illustrations do the descriptions of Poultney Bigelow in the other. The theme pertinent to any and every audience is, however, Herr Antonin Dvorák's "Music in America." It is needless to decide whether Herr Dvorák writes more as patriot or as musician. Certainly none should be able to resist the appeals he stoutly makes to national feeling, though there may be some who will take issue with his theory of the possibilities of the national melodies, as there are already those who find fault with the use made of them in a composition of his own. The recent example of his own country, Bohemia, gives weight to the buoyancy of his belief that the musical apathy of the country may be overcome, and music speedily assigned its rightful place in popular interest; and to complete the friendliness of his attitude, and condone the frankness of his criticism, he has found something to say for the quality of the American voice—has even been "startled by the strength and the depth of the voices in the boys who sell papers on the street." An article on "Art in Glasgow," which no one interested in the development of contemporary schools can afford to overlook, is contributed by Mrs. Pennell, while those who have followed Richard Harding Davis's excellent piece of fooling, "The Princess Aline," must hope that its conclusion next month will be as pure in tone, as light and sure in touch, and as humanly sound at the core as the two parts that have gone before.

—Besides the portion of its contents that is to be foreseen within a hair's breadth of certainty, there is likewise in *Scribner's* an element of the unexpected to give the number liveliness of interest. Also in the category of the actively interesting, though not in that of the unforeseen, belongs the article on James Anthony Froude, which, in the hands of Mr. Birrell, becomes a skilled appreciation. The one saying, that "sacerdotalism, whether enthroned in the Vatican or burning borrowed candles in Lambeth, was the enemy at whose head he aimed his blows," gives approximately the key in which the article is written, and the other, that for the last forty years of his life Froude "was a great, though careless, artist in words," the substance of its literary verdict. "Giants and Giantism" is the title of the novel paper in which Dr. Charles L. Dana seeks to annex new ground for the neurologist's ever-spreading territory. The brain of the giant is found to be the seat of his diseased growth, and anatomical investigation seems to prove that he is merely one more victim of the neurosis or nervous disorder which, in varying

forms, it has become popular to diagnose in the case of writers, musicians, and *fin-de-siècle* women. The final conclusion, that acromegaly, or giantism, is a legitimate object of attack on the part of students of preventive medicine, opens up still another of the sanguine vistas in which that hopeful branch of science is continually growing richer. Bret Harte's "Question of Privilege" is a metrical *tour de force*, with mirth in the broad humor of its verse, but none in the picture of life it inimitably outlines—though hardly inimitably for those who remember "Doesticks's" Congressional debate in which the ante-bellum Southern sensitiveness discovered the dragging in of the negro question even in a poetical quotation ("The rose you deftly culled, man").

—The *Atlantic*, too, has a paper belonging in the line of what passes for new under the sun in methods of thought and observation, in the shape of an elaborate "Study of the Mob," by Boris Sidis. Mobs, the paper explains, are hypnotic phenomena manifested on a large scale, predisposition to hypnotism being produced in masses (as it is in the minds of individuals through any "quiet, uniform, and incessant perception," such as the passes of the hypnotizer), by monotony, as in the Siberian province of Yakutsk, where cases of spontaneous hypnotization are on record; and by social pressure. Social pressure, when laws and regulations press on the individual from every side, when personality is suppressed, when relations in life are fixed, is an even more fundamental factor than monotony in the production of "that peculiar hypnotic state of fascination which is so highly favorable to the formation of mobs." Russians, soldiers, and women is a new classification arising from an examination of the conditions of life which show the two hypnotic factors at their highest powers, and Russia is found to be the country whose history "is a mob history." There is an enlargement of the point of view thus presented of Russia in the following paper, by James Mascarene Hubbard, which describes that empire as a civilizing force in her conquered provinces in Asia. Facts of railroad-building, of engineering, of fleet-building, of manufacture, irrigation, and agriculture, are marshalled in support of the view that Russia's aggressive policy in the Caucasus and Central Asia, is justified by her civilizing agency, and that "the Russian has accomplished in twenty years what the Frenchman has failed to secure in Algeria in sixty years." This is a paper of the class, not too widely distributed, which passes the reader from place to place, not with intent of time-killing, but of gathering data for intelligent thinking. Mrs. Alexander Graham Bell's article on "The Subtle Art of Speech-Reading" has the prime merit of recording individual experience in language that distinctly represents it.

—An important topic—the preservation of national and State forests—is discussed in the *Century* in a series of letters from writers qualified to represent the varying points of view that must be considered in the interest both of the forests and of their proposed guardians. Pending the foundation of a school of forestry, which, after the example of Prussia, France, and England, is the only course open to an intelligent understanding of the necessities of the case, and during the years required to give its course of instruction at least once, protective control of the forests by the Army is called for by the consensus of opinion of the writers. A supplementary course of

instruction in forestry for officers and military cadets, either at West Point or elsewhere, both for the present and in the future, is urged from most quarters, though the balance of evidence is against placing the entire care of the forests permanently in the hands of the Army. A standing need, however, of the Army, as the executive of an administrative staff of trained foresters, with the work of both supplemented by a protective staff "consisting of forest guards, and including private soldiers and non-commissioned officers, to whom lessons in forestry might be given at the post schools," is clearly explained in a letter by Gifford Pinchot, from Biltmore, N. C. The discussion has been called forth by a plan suggested by Prof. Charles S. Sargent of Harvard for forest preservation by military control, and the one point on which there is unanimity of conviction is the immediateness of the need for preservation. Probably the most widely read papers of this issue will be Mrs. Fields's recollections of Dr. Holmes, to which a number of his unpublished letters give a substantial charm of personality, and Mrs. Van Rensselaer's agreeably written "People in New York." There is printed word for believing Sir Edwin Arnold's "Passing of Muhammad" to be a "dramatic sketch", otherwise, although passed from lip to lip among his wives, it might have been mistaken for one of the most undramatic of narratives.

—The fourth Occasional Paper of the John F. Slater Fund is a statistical sketch of the negroes in the United States, prepared by Mr. Henry Gannett of the Geological Survey, and deals with figures, but only very moderately with the reasons underlying the figures. It appears that in 1790 the negro element composed 19 per cent. of the total population, and in 1890 it was 12 per cent.; there were 18 times as many whites and 10 times as many blacks in the country in 1890 as in 1790; and for the last census period (1880-90), the percentage of increase of whites was 26.68 against 13.51 of the blacks, or almost double. Every combination of figures shows that in actual numbers the blacks are increasing; but one decade with another the relative increase has been less than, and it has been steadily surpassed by, that of the whites. It does not appear sound, however, to say, as is done (p. 9), that because in the first fifty years (1790-1840) the whites had increased more rapidly than the negroes (4.5 times to 3.8 times), therefore the greater increase of the whites (3.9 times against 2.6 times of the negroes) in the last half-century is not due to the enormous white immigration that set in in the forties. It would rather appear that the diminution of the white ratio (.6) implies a marked falling off in the natural reinforcement of the whites during the period of reinforcement from abroad. Should this influx from which we are now suffering happily be checked, the decreasing proportionate increase of the whites would still further diminish. Since the cessation of the slave-trade (1808) the blacks have received no foreign addition. But it is doubtless true not only that the whites will always be dominant in numbers, but that the relative proportion of those of wage-earning years will always be greater. This last, however, involves questions of vital statistics and of domestic education, physical and moral, among the blacks not touched upon in this paper.

—Comparing the two races within the former slave States, where more than nine-tenths of the negroes are found and where the whites

have been very slightly affected by migration, the relative proportion has remained practically the same: 65 whites to 35 negroes in the hundred in 1790, 63 to 37 in 1840, 69 to 31 in 1890. During the first fifty years the Southern negroes increased more rapidly than the whites, but less rapidly in the last half-century, although it may be doubted whether there has been the same careful enumeration since the blacks acquired a full instead of a fractional representative value. In Southern towns of 8,000 or more inhabitants in 1860, 10.9 per cent. of the whites and 4.2 per cent. of the negroes were found; the reasonable explanation being that the negroes were held for labor in the fields. In 1890 the proportion of whites and negroes in these towns was 15.7 and 12.4 respectively. Two opposing forces influence the negro: his gregarious tendency, which leads him to the cities, and his inferior equipment for the competition of trade, which tends to keep him a tiller of the soil. Topographically the negroes are in excess in the low-lying, heated, and rainy regions, for which cotton, sugar, and rice are probably primarily responsible. Geographically the negroes are decreasing in the northern tier of the Southern States, and are drifting south. How far that is a migration and how far it is a question of vital statistics is not known. The vital statistics all through the rural South are unsatisfactory. The relative mortality of the negroes in the large cities is nearly double that of the whites, and the birth-rate must also be greater. Nothing is known of the relative morbidity of the race as a whole. The apparent criminal rate is much higher among the blacks; but discussion is empty until it is known how the laws are enforced, and especially the character of the crimes. The proportion of increase among the enrolled negro school-children in the twenty years from 1870 to 1890 was two and a half times that of the whites, and it is said that five years ago 43 out of every 100 negroes over ten years of age were able to read and write. If that is the fact, it seems to imply a large adult death-rate as well as great interest in primary education, for practically no Southern negroes could read or write in 1860. The extreme difficulties that beset negro education in many localities make this proportion of literacy the more remarkable and commendable. This paper, published at Baltimore by the trustees of the Slater Fund, is illustrated by seven diagrams and maps. In plate iii, "white" should read "negro."

—The significance of the coöperative undertaking conducted by Mr. Traill in his editing of 'Social England' has already been spoken of in these columns, on the occasion of the appearance of the first volume. The defects of the second volume—covering the period from the accession of Edward I. to the death of Henry VII.—which has just been issued by Messrs. Cassell and Messrs. Putnam, are the same as those of the first: too great a multiplicity of interests, and an evident disproportion in the space allotted to the several topics. Yet the idea of the book is an excellent one; and it contains a great deal of good work, ranging from painstaking compilations from secondary authorities up to the brilliant essays—too few and too brief—with which Prof. Maitland lights up the history of English law. We hope we may regard these as foretastes of that great history of English law which we have so long been expecting from him. And while such contributions as these, and those of other recognized authorities on their subjects, like Mr. Hubert Hall, make the book desirable

by the scholar, the fairly high level of its execution throughout and the modernness of its tone will commend it to our colleges. Fortunately, the writers are sufficiently at variance among themselves to set their readers thinking.

—The third volume of Dr. Hans Blum's 'Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit' (Munich: Beck) contains a history of German affairs from 1863 to 1867. The most conspicuous events of this period were the wars against Denmark and Austria, the details of which do not come within the limits of the present work. Strategic movements and bloody battles are mentioned only so far as they exerted a more or less direct influence upon diplomatic negotiations. It was in this field that Bismarck conducted his sharp campaigns and won his brilliant victories, without which the most splendid and decisive feats of arms would have failed of their ultimate purpose. The masterly skill with which he prevented any intervention of the European powers during the hostilities with Denmark in 1864, and fairly forced their consent to the annexation of the duchies, was something of which he had every reason to be proud, and is still fain to speak as the most difficult and most successful of all his diplomatic achievements—a judgment which every reader of Blum's clear and consecutive account of the matter will fully endorse. In 1866 he had not only to conciliate foreign nations, but also to curb the impetuosity of military leaders who, as he wrote to his wife, were intoxicated by success and seemed to think they had conquered the world and could use their pleasure in disposing of it. "It is my ungrateful task to pour water into their too exhilarating wine, and to remind them that we are not living alone in Europe, but with three neighbors." There is no lack of spicy incidents and comical *contretemps* growing out of his relations to intriguing diplomats and to hostile members of the Chamber of Deputies. One day the Austrian ambassador to the Federal Diet, Count Rechberg, received a despatch instructing him to vote with Prussia for a certain important measure, accompanied with a confidential letter directing him to induce the representatives of the other German states to vote against the measure and thus defeat it. In his haste he handed the wrong paper to Bismarck, who read and returned it with the remark: "There must be some mistake here." Rechberg saw his blunder, and grew pale and excited. "Don't be disturbed," said Bismarck; "you did not intend to give me this document, and therefore you have not given it to me, and I am wholly ignorant of its contents." In fact, he made no mention of it in his official reports, and thus won Rechberg's gratitude, besides having him henceforth "on the hip."

THIERS REDIVIVUS.—I.

History of the Consulate and the Empire of France under Napoleon. By L. A. Thiers. 12 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

History of the French Révolution. By L. A. Thiers. 5 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1894.

"THERE is not one only, but there are twenty different methods of writing history. It may be written in the style of Thucydides, Xenophon, Polybius, Livy, Sallust, Caesar, Tacitus, Comines, Guicciardini, Macchiavelli, Saint-Simon, Frederick the Great, or Napoleon, and

be superlatively written, although very differently. I would desire nothing better of Providence than to have acquitted myself as the least eminent of these historians, in order to feel certain that I had done well, and that I should leave behind me a memento of my ephemeral existence."

A man who ventures to introduce himself to his readers in such company—though it be done in the garb of modesty rather than of offensive self-conceit—has certainly no mean opinion of his own worth. Does posterity recognize the right of Louis Adolphe Thiers, who penned those lines in the preface to his 'History of the Consulate and the Empire'—written ten years after the publication of the first volume of the work—to name himself in the same breath with those illustrious men? We cannot argue this from the fact that forty (and partly more than fifty) years after the publication of his two voluminous works, judicious publishers deem it a good commercial venture to offer a new edition of the English translation to the public of Great Britain and America. In all probability the extraordinary revival of interest in Napoleon and his epoch is at the bottom of this republication. The great political rôle played by Thiers himself can hardly have entered into the calculation. Steam and electricity have made the world live fearfully fast, and nearly twenty years have passed since Thiers practically stepped down from the political stage. Men and women under thirty years of age at least have no immediate consciousness of his having been one of their great contemporaries. The works must sell as the productions of the historian and not of the statesman Thiers, or they will not sell at all. We think that they will sell; but is it desirable that they should find a good market? That is a very different question, and the right answer to it is by no means an unhesitating and unqualified yes. We should say, that depends upon how they are read. It seems unnecessary to add, "by whom," for the scholar must turn to the original. The republication being a translation, it can be intended only for the general public.

The general public cannot be expected to hunt up what competent judges said forty to fifty years ago. Nor would they know, even if they did, what the present standing of the historian Thiers is. If the "Preface to the English Edition" of the 'History of the French Revolution' was to be retained as an integral part of the reprint, it should have been dated, for one finds in it the following assertion: "It [the History] may justly be pronounced the best that has been written on a very momentous period; the safest, as well as the most entertaining; and when we refer to the long list of eminent authors who have employed their pens in the description of this gigantic moral earthquake, it is no slight commendation to be placed at the head of the phalanx." As to the "most entertaining," it would be bootless to controvert the proposition as long as tastes differ. But how about "the safest"? The work done in this field by French and foreign scholars during the half-century that has elapsed since Thiers wrote his history is stupendous. By the hundredweight new material of importance has been brought to light from the dusty alcoves of public and private archives. Trained historians—many of them men of a very high, if not the very highest, order—have sifted it critically and determined its bearing upon the evolution of the grandest historical drama. If, in spite of all that, the son of a poor workman of Marseilles, whose professional training was that of a lawyer, not of an historian, and who devoted by far the

larger half of his time to journalism and politics, is still the safest guide through the bewildering mazes of the French Revolution, he must have been much more than a prodigy; he must have been a genuinely inspired seer. By supernatural intuition he must have divined what he could not know, for the documents revealing the facts had never come under his eye. Nobody has thus far felt tempted to stand sponsor to such a superlatively absurd claim. Nobody can, therefore, deny that Thiers's History of the Revolution must be of necessity in a high degree antiquated.

This is not saying that it does not still deserve to be read. In a sense it really is, as the preface to the English edition avers, "a classic." To those, also, who are in search of something more than mere entertainment its perusal will be profitable. The easy and graceful flow of the narrative, the unaffected and well-tempered simplicity of style, the elegant and exquisitely proportioned structural arrangement, the unsurpassable lucidity of statement, can be studied to great advantage not only by the historian, but also by the journalist, the novelist, the lawyer, the pulpit orator, the economist, the teacher—in short, by everybody who, for the benefit of others, has to put thoughts into language and to present facts. But to direct any one who primarily wishes to learn what is known to-day of the true history of the French Revolution above all to Thiers, is far worse than to urge Niebuhr rather than Mommsen, Ihne, Marquardsen, etc., upon the student of Roman history—far worse because Niebuhr's critical scholarship lit a powerful beacon-light which, so far as its rays penetrated, dispelled darkness for ever, though they did not bring the effulgence of the noonday sun. Thiers, as the historian of the Revolution, was not for a single year anything of the kind. Unequaled as the narrator of its course, he had, as a critical investigator of it, even in his day, not only his peers, but his superiors. Again, as to original research, he holds no mean place among the historians of the century, but the fame he is justly entitled to in this respect was principally, though not exclusively, achieved in later years. Certainly a vast amount of reading was done for the History of the Revolution, but much of it was done for him by others; and the public meant no offence when, in the earlier years of Thiers's fame as an historian, they habitually adorned him with a tail—"les historiens de Mons. Thiers." Such reading as he did himself was not done so much in the spirit of the plodding scholar, who patiently devotes days, weeks, and months to clearing up a doubtful question, because he has no ulterior object, searching after truth for truth's sake, but rather in the spirit of the intensely interested spectator, who cares more to see and to understand than to know, and therefore always rests satisfied if he feels reasonably convinced of having grasped correctly the situation as a whole and the positions of the principal figures.

The assertion that Thiers cared more to understand than to know calls for an explanation. In the first-mentioned preface to the "History of the Consulate and the Empire" he declares "intelligence" to be the quality the historian needs above all, and elaborates this thesis almost to the extent of an essay. His argumentation is eminently characteristic of him, and delineates with graphic precision his own way of studying and writing history. Thiers was possessed of a truly prodigious amount of what he understood by intelligence. His every fibre quivered with it. He could not help being intelligent as to everything, for it

was his very nature. In a sense there was no merit in the wonderfully transparent lucidity with which he presented everything, not only when he wrote, but also when he addressed the Chamber from the tribune. It required no effort on his part to make the intricate plain and the involved perspicuous. He did not unravel the tangle; it was no tangle to him. Under the influence of sentiment and ambition, he did at times strive to close his ears against the promptings of this domineering intelligence, but he succeeded only very indifferently. Nevertheless, though he was amazingly intelligent, he was by no means possessed of an intellect of the first order. Whatever he saw he saw with remarkable clearness, but neither was his range of vision extraordinary in extent, nor did he see everything that lay within its limits. He characterized himself as "devoted to the modest worship of good sense" (*Hist. of the Cons. and the Emp.* v., 3); and truly, for his intelligence, though prodigious, was after all only the intelligence of good or common sense. It was clear, comprehensive, keen, sure-footed, and good taste, tact, and sparkling *esprit* served it as most helpful handmaids; but it was neither profound nor lofty. He therefore could become famous and do meritorious work of a high order, but the wreath of real greatness was not within his reach, either as historian or as statesman. If his character had been moulded on a grand scale, it might have counterbalanced and even outweighed his intellectual limitations. But the deeper cause of his intellectual qualities not rising to a higher level was exactly that his character, though of untarnished respectability, wholly free from low and sordid ingredients, and capable of a devotion challenging admiration, was, after all, in the main not above the common stature. As his intelligence was pre-eminently that of common sense, so were his moral standards in politics commonplace, and the political ideals he was striving after those of the common crowd—using the words in their natural meaning, and not in the customary disparaging sense. In his whole way of thinking, feeling, and aspiring he was the most exquisite embodiment of the typical traits of the French *bourgeoisie* the nineteenth century has produced—the weak and reprehensible more or less toned down and smoothed over, and the strong and good partly developed almost to perfection, but still—to paraphrase *King Lear*—every inch a French *bourgeois*, nothing else and nothing more.

The writer of the preface to the English edition of the History of the Revolution calls Thiers "a worldly statesman, with no strong passions or prejudices to mislead his judgment." He might have added—nor with strong convictions to bar his way. Not that he was not honest in his convictions, nor that he lacked convictions to which he was, in a way, faithful throughout his life. But neither upon his intellect, nor upon his sentiments, nor upon his conscience did these convictions have sufficient hold to prevent certain other sentiments of his, which collided with them, from getting the better of them and of him. He did not renounce or deny his convictions, but, under the pressure of those other sentiments, he became very accommodating, bidding the convictions just to keep discreetly in the background for the time being, and utilizing his dialectic powers for establishing a *modus vivendi* between yes and no. His lack of profundity stood him in good stead in this intellectual and moral thimblerrigging. If he had not kept so near the surface, he would have found it less easy to persuade himself, even more

than others, that this weakness was in truth a great merit.

"I have endeavored to stifle within my own bosom every feeling of animosity; I alternately figured to myself that, born in a cottage, animated with a just ambition, I was resolved to acquire what the pride of the higher classes had unjustly refused me; or that, bred in palaces, the heir to ancient privileges, it was painful to me to renounce a possession which I regarded as a legitimate property. Thenceforward I could not harbor enmity against either party; I pitied the combatants, and I indemnified myself by admiring generous deeds wherever I found them."

That is, according to his own declaration, the spirit in which he had studied and written the history of the Revolution. Can a more appropriate spirit be conceived of? If the question could have been submitted to a vote of all the factions, ought he not to have been their unanimous choice as historian of the Revolution? For surely each had good cause for gratification and none any reason to complain. *Sine ira et studio*, and in addition a heart large and generous enough to have a responsive pulse for all! "Objectiveness" is recognized as a prime requisite of the historian's mind. Is this not objectiveness in the sublimest form?

An eminent German historian thought differently. Ludwig Haeusser thus depicted the results of this way of looking at history:

"Thiers has made us share and live through all the sentiments of the different epochs; we rejoice, embrace, rhetoricize with the Constituent Assembly; we bluster with Camille Desmoulins and the Palais Royal; we become fanaticized with the Convention and weep with the imprisoned royal family; and though our hearts must ache in accompanying the Gironde to the guillotine, we can, after all, not help looking with sympathetic admiration also upon the fabric of terror which Danton, Robespierre, and Barrère are erecting. No party has a right to complain, for each finds a side dressed up to its taste by the author; nobody is angry; circumstances, fate, necessity are responsible for everything; all individuals, from Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette down to Robespierre and Marat, were at bottom unexceptionable people."

So it is; "this tolerant fatalism" practically eliminates moral responsibility. The history cooked by Thiers according to the above-mentioned recipe is a very palatable and easily digestible dish, but a close analysis reveals the fact that the ethics contained in it are so diluted as to remind one of Abraham Lincoln's meat broth made from the shadow of a pigeon that had died of starvation.

This in part accounts for the admirable success with which Thiers has lived up to his maxim that "the reader must be spared all effort of attention." It besides points directly to the foremost among the reasons why, as the preface to the English edition states, "he has no tendency to enter into long investigations of causes which he leaves the reader to discover for himself." Thus he has as much consideration for himself as for his readers. It is an excellent device to spare himself arduous efforts, but it proves that, though he is more anxious to understand than to know, his desire to understand is confined to pretty restricted limits. But if the author does not take the trouble to search for the causes, and the reader is spared all effort of attention, it is easy to imagine how that must affect the reader's really understanding the period whose history he is told. Certainly, it is not the historian's function to indulge in moralizing homilies, but to present facts. But the causes are an essential part of the facts—we are tempted to say that they are in a sense their vital principle. If the facts are not fully

grasped in their double character of effects and causes, so that the story clearly reveals "the causal *accus*" of an organic tissue, we do not get the true historical facts, but merely their shells. History then fails to fulfil one of its principal, most responsible, and most beneficent tasks.

The muse of history stands foremost among her sisters, provided her records are written in such a manner that she can rightfully engrave upon her tablets the inscription, *Mortui vivos docent*. Strange as it may seem at first sight, Thiers was, in spite of all we have said, only too ardent a votary of this principle. It would be doing singular injustice to him to consider the History of the Revolution merely as a history. To-day it is nothing but that; originally, however, it was, besides, something else and, judged from the historical point of view, something greater than a mere book. Though, as we heard Haeusser say, nobody was angry and each party found a side dressed up to suit its taste, it was conceived as a political manifesto, and as such it became a political deed of far-reaching, beneficent effect. It was a political manifesto against the Bourbonism incapable of either learning or forgetting anything—the Bourbonism outdoing the "red Terror" by the "white Terror"—the Bourbonism saddled with the "*chambre introuvable*"—the Bourbonism making the day of the execution of Louis XVI. an official day of national prayerful contrition—the Bourbonism inflicting upon the "*France intérieure*," i. e., the overwhelming majority of the nation that had willed the Revolution, the audaciously arrogant and shamelessly egotistical rule of the "*France extérieure*," i. e., the emigration—the Bourbonism glorying in the "missions," with their revival of mediæval fanaticism and their gross mediæval tricks—the Bourbonism of the "Congregation" and the Jesuits, readmitted into the realm and lifted into power in flagrant violation of the law—in short, the Bourbonism which systematically led up to the July ordinances of Charles X. and Polignac, and thereby to the July Revolution. The faith of the people in the Revolution was revived. Though they continued to be cut up and rent into factions, the reading of these records, more fascinating than the most interesting novel, was a powerful factor in rallying them on the common ground that, in spite of everything, it had not been all a terrible mistake, for which the nation ought to do penance in sackcloth and ashes. Those who wanted to draw this inference from the fact that the brothers of the decapitated king were seated on the throne, were understood to be the true enemies, and the only enemies common to all whose hearts beat strongly and warmly for the welfare of whole France. Therefore it was an excellent tactical move to spare the feelings of all and have a kind word for all. It was the surest means to make all join minds and hands in resisting the attempt to have the vicious idols smashed by the Revolution again set up on their pedestals.

Besides, it was the stepping-stone to the ulterior end. Contending against the lapse of the Restoration into headlong reaction would naturally lead to the reawakening or the strengthening of the positive attachment to the great underlying ideas of the Revolution. To prevent the resuscitation of the hated *ancien régime* from its bloody tomb was not enough. What was sound in the tenets and maxims of the Revolution had to be made again active forces in the minds of men, and thereby in the institutions of the country. This, too, required the conciliation of as many

as possible, and it could best be attained by moderation, and by propagating the true faith indirectly by means of an inspiring narrative of its history, rather than by direct preaching and the display of a partisan spirit. The astute mind of Thiers saw all this the clearer because he was by temperament as well as by conviction a moderate Liberal, and his great natural abilities as a political tactician were developed to a high degree of perfection in the school of journalism under restrictive press laws. Other historians might have seen it too, and still would not have allowed it to exercise any influence whatever upon their work. With Thiers that was wholly out of the question, because he was primarily and above all a politician and not an historian. That the rôle of the historian exercised such a powerful charm upon him was in great measure due to the fact that history could be made a serviceable vehicle for political purposes, and he made it such a vehicle consciously and of set purpose. To say that he would not have become an historian if history could not have been utilized in this way, would be to overshoot the mark. But that he never lost sight of this fact, and that it was at times the uppermost consideration in his mind, can be irrefutably proved from his works. The critic of the historian Thiers who does not constantly ascertain when the volume in hand was written, what the political situation of France was at the time, and in what predicament it put the politician Thiers, is sure to make an occasional slip and to pass by many a suggestive or even important point. On the other hand, if he does not fail to make these inquiries, it will be fully revealed to him how the marked growth of the historian Thiers stands in close causal connection with the ripening of Thiers the public man (composed in about equal parts of the politician and the statesman) in the school of disappointment and adversity, into a full-sized statesman only slightly tainted with the proclivities of the politician.

ALBERT MOORE.

Albert Moore, his Life and Works. By Alfred Lys Baldry. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1894. 4to, pp. xii, 110. Many illustrations.

ALBERT MOORE (christened Albert Joseph) was born in 1841, the son of William Moore, a portrait painter living at York and not without reputation, who, like his more distinguished son, has found a place in the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' Albert Moore exhibited two studies in the Royal Academy when he was only sixteen, and from 1860 to 1893 his pictures were constantly shown at the Academy, as well as at the Grosvenor Gallery and other public exhibitions in London, and larger works in the way of wall-painting were executed in different parts of England. No man's work excites greater interest among artists, and none proves more interesting to the student. He is, however, very little known in this country, and even in England is seldom named as a really eminent and distinguished painter. The 1889 edition of Bryan's Dictionary knows him not; the almost all embracing Seubert, edition of 1882, barely names him as a "*Mr. der Gegenwart in London*"; Müller's '*Künstler-Lexikon*' gives him one of the briefest of notices; Clement and Hutton, in '*Artists of the Nineteenth Century*,' give him only eight lines besides some quotations. It is not more than justice requires that the present very handsome and very important book

should be devoted to this artist, who, as Mr. Whistler has said, just missed being a very great man.

The book shows at once how he missed greatness and how near he came to it. It is a record of a busy life, and of a large production of the most artistic, the most comforting, the most gratifying and delightful pictures, in which, however, there is lacking that divine fire which burns in two or three men in a century. The book contains many full-page photographic pictures, of which ten are photographs, and contains also head- and tail-pieces and other text illustrations, bringing the whole number of reproductions of Moore's work up to about eighty, and including also a portrait of William Moore and two photographs from life of the artist himself. This is what is most important in it, as may be said without disrespect to a very competent writer. The text, which is not very voluminous, devotes a chapter to the artist's biography; then two chapters to a record of his works, "From Year to Year," 1857 to 1874, and 1875 to 1893; then a chapter to his "Working Principles" and one to his critics. A list of Moore's pictures, the years of their production, and the places of their exhibition, and a full index, complete the book.

No modern painter has lived more wholly in his art of painting than Albert Moore. His pictures have nothing to do with literature or with history, with peasant-life or child-life, with anecdote or with mysticism. He chose as his subjects things which would be lovely in pictures, and kept steadily before him as his one end and aim the production of pictures which would be delightful to look at. That is to say, he was as indifferent to story-telling in art as Paul Veronese. And if it is an adequate description of Veronese to call him a decorative painter, it is equally sufficient as a description of Moore. All depends upon what you mean by "decorative." If it is decoration to produce in painting what no other art can supply, and to ignore that which another art, namely, the art of words, can do better, then the Cinquecento man and the modern man are decorators alike.

One of Moore's most valuable pictures is "The Quartette," painted in 1869 and exhibited in the Royal Academy. It is three feet long and contains seven figures. Four men are seated on a prominent seat, a solid bench running the whole length of the room as we see it; above them is a shelf of which there is something to be said. Between the men and the spectator stand three women, two together and half-embraced, the third alone, all looking fixedly and as if in a trance at the musicians. For the four men hold two violins, a viola (probably), and a cello; and a concerted piece of music is in process of execution. The double-bass lies upon the shelf above, and vases filled with flowering branches occupy the rest of it. The four men are dressed somewhat in ancient Greek taste, three of them in loose draperies and the fourth in leopard-skins; their hair is in short curls; one wears a slightly indicated cap, and one a fillet. The three women are all clothed in abundant drapery, more ample than the Greek, more free and loose than the Roman models; and their hair is dressed in the simplest way, drawn back loosely and coiled at the back of the head. The musicians are intent upon their delightful task, the women as intent upon the music and the musicians. There is no other thought, no lingering or suggested love-making or purpose apart from the music; so much general or unpainterlike subject there is and no more. And

the picture is rife with interest. It is impossible to weary of it; young people and old, beginners and veterans in the study of gallery pictures, love it alike. Examination shows that the figures are admirably drawn and posed, the draperies most skilfully cast, the faces full of quiet expression.

The indifference of the painter to archaeology is complete. Not only are the garments and draperies of no historical epoch, but the exquisite designs of parts of furniture, doors, screens, and the like are not to be classified as of any epoch, nor does Mr. Moore hesitate to put a violin or a palm-leaf fan into the hand of a figure draped in what may pass for a classical fashion. The violin and the fan are beautiful in form, and that clearly suffices for this singularly abstract and ideal art. The picture called "Dreamers" was exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1882, and is four feet long. We propose to describe it at the risk of making the reader laugh. A long bench here also runs along the wall, and it has a moderately high back upon which the head of a sleeper may be laid as she sits upon the bench. Three such sleepers there have been, beautiful girls, but one of them has just waked, and has raised herself; the other two, in attitudes repeating each other in many respects, are deep in their dreams. A lovely pattern covers the wall, and another adorns the stuff which covers the sofa, but the girls are in drapery of unfigured stuffs, and this and some other drapery forms a large part of the subject of the picture. The sleepers are sound asleep; they are heavy on the bench and their heads are heavy on the ledge which supports them. The awakened girl is only just conscious of the external world.

An excellent critic, considering these pictures of no literary or anecdotal subject, in which the human figure, nude or draped and treated for itself alone, is always the principal thing, declares that Moore's way of looking at his subjects and at his work was a sculptor's way. To this it may be answered that he cared too much for color, too much for lovely patterns in color, too much for flat designing as if of inlay, as contrasted with relief designing, to be called a would-be sculptor. Moreover, the excellent use of landscape-backgrounds, as in "Follow My Leader" (1873), "Oranges" (1885), and "An Idyll" (1891), as well as the use of landscape for more than a background, as in "Waiting to Cross" (1888), and "The Loves of the Winds and Seasons" (1893), is proof enough of the painter-like mind of the man.

His peculiar use of color is also to be kept in mind. The picture called "A Revery" was exhibited at the New Gallery in 1892, and was afterwards sent to the Chicago Exhibition; it contains but a single figure, and is not quite four feet high. A draped woman is sitting in a very rich, throne-like chair; behind the chair is a screen most elaborately adorned with a flat pattern; and a marble inlaid floor receives the sitter's feet. The lady holds a fan, and some large flowers are thrown loosely upon the pavement beside her; other flowers fill large vases, and a branch of marigolds comes into view from beyond the frame in the upper right-hand corner. All the tone of color is high and pale. The drapery is generally yellow, cream-color and orange; the chair is ivory inlaid with pearl; the screen is pale-green and silver. A tendency to very light colors exists in all of Moore's work that we know of or can get word of. He saw colors as most men see them, and was not in his choice of them akin to the "Impression-

ists," but the colors which he cared for and desired to render were always the bright, pure, and light ones. This peculiarity of his work has brought on the argument which our author holds with Mr. Sidney Colvin, admitted to be the most sympathetic critic of all those who have analyzed in the journals Moore's work as a painter. Mr. Colvin is quoted as having said that, after all, "the kind of color which has been practised by the Venetians and by all the great schools of painting in Europe" is to be preferred. Mr. Baldry takes exception to this dictum in a very sensible way, like a student of Japanese painting and of the new thoughts that art has given to the West, like a champion of free thought everywhere. The Venetian color was a convention, he declares; and no one can gainsay him. Why should we not have other and different schemes of color, each admitted as good in its way? "The lover of the old convention admits nothing as color which is not low-toned and heavy, full of mysterious gloom. The laughing brilliancy of the open air, the sparkle of light, the dainty pattern of bright hues, softened and diluted by the all-pervading radiance of the scene, give nothing better than what Mr. Colvin calls a 'thin and abstract system of color.'" So protests Mr. Baldry against a too conservative criticism; and these words may remain the last of our notice of his hero—certainly one of the most eminent of modern artists—and of the very valuable book devoted to him.

RODWAY'S BRITISH GUIANA.

History of British Guiana, from the year 1668 to the present time. By James Rodway, F.L.S. Volume III. 1883-1893. Georgetown, Demerara: J. Thomson. 1894.

To Americans, British Guiana is a place the very name of which is all but unknown. Some learned of it for the first time on visiting the World's Fair at Chicago, where the exhibits of the colony were displayed to such advantage by Commissioner Quelch as to attract considerable attention; but here again not a few persisted in identifying Guiana with Guinea. There are, nevertheless, merchants in New York and other commercial centres who have interests of a very solid kind in the trade going on between Great Britain's colony on the mainland of South America and the United States. From Portland, Me., and Boston, whence are shipped cargoes of ice and iced provisions; from New York, whence go a number of general cargoes; and from Fernandina and other ports in Florida, whence are exported quantities of pitch pine lumber—the year round there are vessels over which float the stars and stripes, bound to Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana, or to New Amsterdam, another port of the same colony. From the latest published customs returns of British Guiana, it appears that the value in gold of the last year's trade of the colony with the United States amounted to, in imports, \$2,310,000, and in exports \$4,312,000; the latter consisting mainly of the sugar so famous as "Demerara," the name of the most important port of the colony. The tyranny of the Sugar Trust and the barrier of high duties, have hitherto prevented Americans from enjoying the luxury of the straw-colored grains of the Demerara sugar.

It is of this colony that a history has just been completed by Mr. James Rodway, F.L.S., the accomplished librarian of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana, and the editor of that Society's sci-

entific journal, *Timehri*, so called after the aboriginal word, in Guiana, for the mysterious picture-writings on some of the rocks in that part of the world. It is not only in *Timehri* that the editor's contributions will be found. He has written papers in such London periodicals as *Natural Science* and the *Cornhill* and *Longman's*; and his delightful paper upon "Orchid-Hunting in Guiana," which appeared a few months ago in the *Cornhill*, attracted deserved attention. Mr. Rodway's literary and scientific labors have just been further manifested in his production of a work entitled "In a Guiana Forest: Studies of Nature in Relation to the Struggle for Life" (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners).

Having already noticed in the *Nation* the first two volumes of Mr. Rodway's *History*, it is only left to deal with the third, which brings the narrative down to 1893. Seeing that, in 1895, the third century will be completed since Sir Walter Raleigh made his first voyage to Guiana (of which he has left us an account in that " quaint and curious volume," published in 1596 with the title of "The Discoverie of The Large, Rich and Bountiful Empire of Guiana"), Mr. Rodway has produced his work very timely. Time is still working wonders. When, in 1876, we gave ourselves up to celebrating the centenary of the Declaration of Independence, people in Old England sagely remarked that the observance of centenaries was characteristic of a young nation with a short history. All this sagacious superiority is now cast aside; and not only has the centenary of a great event, like that of the defeat of the Spanish Armada, been commemorated, but "celebrations" of centenaries are so much the fashion that not only events but individuals also have their centenaries honored in the Old Country. Edmund Gibbon has just had this honor. Who knows but that Sir Walter Raleigh, whose life the same Gibbon once contemplated writing, may receive this distinction in 1896 from his countrymen, who regard him as a great Englishman? Americans, too, may have something to say of one who did so much to promote English colonization in the New World.

It is of the period from the emancipation of the slaves, in 1834, to the present time, that Mr. Rodway's third volume treats. The history of British Guiana has, since the emancipation, been very much a history of its plantation labor question; for, until the rise of its gold industry, in 1888, the colony was for the most part a vast sugar plantation. The timbers of British Guiana are not sufficiently well known to cause any great development of trade in that respect, although the "greenheart" is so celebrated for its enduring qualities as to be sought for when great harbor works are being constructed. To the building of a pier at Ostend, or towards the making of the Manchester ship-canal, many a great "log" of "greenheart" has gone from the colony. And yet the sugar industry has so overtopped that of timber that the latter has not hitherto been regarded as "a good second" to the former. Shortly after the abolition of slavery a large number of the emancipated laborers left the plantations. Wages rose accordingly. The planters soon found that they could not afford to continue cultivation at such a high cost for labor. They had been accustomed to the African as a tiller of their fields, and they sought to procure African laborers from outside. The British Government, then maintaining a squadron on the West Coast of Africa for the suppression of the

slave-trade, forbade the recruiting of laborers in that quarter. In the neighboring West Indian colonies, the local planters wanted their own people, and discouraged recruiting for British Guiana. Laborers were brought from Madeira, the Azores, from the East Indies, and from wherever else they could be got. Even a few Germans and Irish were imported. At last, immigration from India and China became an established fact, and now 4,000 or 5,000 coolies are annually imported from India. As these East Indians have all hitherto enjoyed the right of a free return passage to India, at the expiration of ten years' residence in the colony (a right which many have exercised), and as the number of females introduced is less than that of the males, this system of immigration has not proved, up to the present time, as successful for purposes of colonization as could have been wished. The amount spent upon immigration, from first to last, by the planters and the Government of the colony together, exceeds twenty-two millions of dollars. The pluck with which the sugar industry has been maintained in British Guiana, and the scientific skill with which the manufacture of the staple has been carried to perfection, have as yet survived the harassing expedients of the Sugar Trust and the discouragement of an American high tariff. The American consumer may yet find in "Demerara crystals" one of the needs of his breakfast and tea-tables.

To a description of the rise and development of the gold industry of the colony, Mr. Rodway devotes two chapters. From a tiny shipment of 250 ounces in 1884, the export has risen to 137,629 ounces in the colony's last financial year. This is the product of surface washings solely. Various enterprises for quartz-mining in the colony are now under way; some local, others with outside capital. Among the latter is the New York and British Guiana Gold Mining Company, with a capital of a million dollars, nominally. Of the fact that gold abounds within the colony, experts have no doubt; but, as is elsewhere the case, Nature opposes many difficulties to the collection of the precious metal. Diamonds have been found in British Guiana, but not as yet of any solid commercial value.

The question between Great Britain and Venezuela as to the boundaries of British Guiana is not unknown in the United States. It was touched upon in the *Nation* when Mr. Rodway's first two volumes were discussed. In the third volume of his work the author gives a chapter to the subject. He deplores the short-sightedness of the colonists of a previous generation, who, in 1840, declined to contribute half the expense of a survey which the British Government had employed Sir Robert Schomburgk to make, with a view to define the colony's boundaries. At a subsequent date, a geological survey of the colony, towards which the British Government gave a grant in aid, was discontinued at the instance of the colonial legislators. "It was the old story," says Mr. Rodway: "unless practical results were obtained at once, the thing was no good, and the expense unwarrantable." The maps compiled by the geologists who made the survey are now much sought after.

The fair city of Georgetown, the capital and chief port of the colony, has a chapter to itself. The development of Georgetown from its germ, the little hamlet of Stabroek, first projected by the British during their occupation of the then Dutch colony in 1781, and actually begun by the French during their occupation in 1782, and then continued and carried out by

the Dutch when the colony was restored to them, down to the Georgetown of to-day, with its 55,000 inhabitants, is shown with clearness. For a sub-tropical city, Georgetown is quite up to date. Lying five feet below the sea's level at high-water mark, sanitary measures have effected so much as to make the town a fairly healthy place. With its broad streets, crossing one another at right angles, and its numerous private residences adorned with trees and plants of various shapes and colors, there is much to please the eye of a visitor. In business matters there is much to show that colonists keep abreast with the times. Overhead, numerous wires span the wide streets, for telegraphic, telephonic, and electric lighting purposes. Sixpenny telegrams were in vogue in British Guiana before they were adopted in the United Kingdom; and the addresses are not charged by the colonial post-office. The citizens of Georgetown rejoice in a day-and-night telephone service, and they use gas or the electric light in their houses, as they prefer. The city itself is lighted in both ways. Ice is not only imported from Boston and Maine, but is manufactured in the colony. With ice selling at one cent for two pounds, the inhabitants of British Guiana are able to have cold water, which is now held to be a necessary of existence, always on hand. There are two cathedrals in Georgetown and two public gardens. In one respect at least the postal administration is ahead of that of many a larger place, for letters posted in the city for delivery within go for a one-cent postage rate. Needless to say that Georgetown has its firm of universal providers, in the shape of "The Great Demerara Supply Stores." That this enterprising business establishment has a nice respect for the veracities may be gathered from one of its recent advertisements in a Georgetown newspaper. Therein, after declaring its "popular prices for every article," and "everything fresh and up to date," these public benefactors include in their tempting list of goods on sale, "Hatchets, same as used by George Washington, 64 cents each."

That a history such as Mr. Rodway's should have been printed and published in a tropical colony with less than 300,000 inhabitants, most of whom are of the humbler classes, is highly to the credit of Mr. James Thomson, the proprietor of the "Argosy" Press, whose enterprise in this matter must be regarded as a public service done to British Guiana.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XXI. Nos. 1814 to 1860. London. April, 1894.

BEFORE approaching the more important contents of the opening volume in the third decade of this great work, it seems a fitting moment to speak once more in praise of the performance as it advances towards completion. Not only is the interesting character of the documents fully maintained—though rarely some paper is offered whose presence could be spared—but there is no discernible falling off in the quality of the paper, or in the well-nigh faultless execution (in facsimiles) of the originals, and of the clear and beautifully written translations. The technical effect is brilliant and stately, a thorough and careful piece of workmanship. Until this monument is done it will be difficult to appreciate the significance of seemingly unrelated portions, but a word of commendation is not out of place at any time, and it is a pleasure to give it.

Vol. 21 closes as it opens, with Vergennes still

trying to make Spanish and French diplomacy run in double harness; but, with all the great minister's astuteness, he finds Florida Blanca decidedly offish, especially so because D'Aranda at Paris is favoring almost with enthusiasm the French rather than the Spanish home policy. The documents to and from Vergennes and Montmorin are too long and too intricate for elucidation, but their theme is simple and their logic irresistible except to the Spanish King and his irritated minister, who show an almost impious unwillingness to see that Providence is pointing the way for the houses of Bourbon to join forces against the common foe. In forestalling any prestige which England may gain with America, by themselves treating definitely, though secretly, with the Deputies, the two crowns necessarily commit the colonies to a furtherance of their own interests in the New World. It is not easy to determine how sincere Vergennes was in thinking that the natural relationship between the mother country and her revolted colonies was likely to prove deeper than any temporary animosities between them; but it is reasonably certain that, to his mind, everything hung upon the way in which English opinion would swing after the assembling of Parliament. Should the North ministry or its successor decide to grant all concessions short of actual independence, or should it waive that last obstacle, there was, in his mind, only one policy for France—to act with promptness and to render any English overtures impossible by treaties of alliance and of commerce. He will induce Spain, if persuasion and gentleness can do it, but he makes it clear that France will pursue her course in any event.

The evidence offered in a detached way throughout these documents makes it difficult to say just what caused the procrastination of the Spanish court. The wounded pride of Florida Blanca at finding himself pushed by a foreign minister of only coequal power with himself towards accepting a course of conduct repugnant to his sovereign's moral judgment and to his own *amour propre*, is certainly a possible explanation. The only strong excuse freely sent back to the repeated messages from Versailles through the French ambassador was that the Spanish fleet would be in danger should England learn of any such provocation as a treaty with America. Vergennes in answer gives ample assurance that the fleet shall be rendered secure, but the most that can be elicited in return is the vague promise that should war actually ensue, Spain will not refuse to bear her share in it.

Before the volume closes, that happens (though we get no definite facts as yet) which is a common matter of history: the United States and France, on February 6, 1778, enter into two treaties, one of alliance and one of commerce. Stormont repeats a rumor of the event on the same day to Weymouth (No. 1857). Antecedent to this, but in close connection with it, comes document No. 1831, which deserves careful attention. It is Monsieur Gérard's "Narrative of a conference with the American commissioners," on January 9. It shows how cautiously the steps towards a definite conclusion were taken. Flattering to national pride is this untouched "negative" of our comparatively unsophisticated deputies, calmly and cleverly playing the game of statecraft, with three great Powers and thirteen colonies in the pool.

Let us turn from this side of the picture to Lord Stormont, still pertinaciously and hopelessly representing a fast losing cause. His complaints are the same, though deeper and

louder, that France is acting out a perfidious policy. The phrase pleases him if nothing else does. His work is so nearly done that it would be unprofitable now to describe it minutely. Just one success is vouchsafed to him when he reduces his great adversary, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, to absolute speechlessness. Stormont, after the Queen's ball of January 21, when he hears that twenty-one French ships of the line are to be put into commission at once, goes to Vergennes and asks him of this news, then questions him point-blank as to the truth of rumors concerning the treaties with America. Stormont writes to Weymouth, "He seemed more embarrassed than ever I remember him, plaid with his fingers, and remained quite silent" (No. 1846). Vergennes himself, in a letter to Noailles (No. 1848), relates this interview very accurately, but explains, more lamely than is his wont, his silence on the ground that he cannot speak without first knowing the pleasure of the King.

How did Stormont get his intelligence of the treaties so soon and so accurately? France had used every effort to preserve the secret, at least while Spain was still so coy. Of the two treaties, that of commerce, if made public, was the least calculated to work mischief, but secrecy for both was most desirable. A little later, February 6 (No. 1858), Stormont speaks of a new source of information, "Mr. James," who wishes "to shew his Regard for Great Britain by giving useful intelligence, for which He expects a handsome acknowledgment"; and as an earnest "a gratification of Fourscore or a hundred Guineas" is suggested for the worthy fellow. It was not probably this "Mr. James" who revealed the treaties, nor could it easily have been the engaging Paul Wentworth, who, seriously annoyed at the intrusion upon his privacy of persons connected with the French secret service, had taken alarm and called on M. Favier on January 11 (No. 1833), clad "in top boots and frock coat," to say good-bye, and to make a final proposition that Favier should form a fourth in a partnership for speculation. The correspondence is to relate only to the operations in the money market, but the Frenchman refuses on the ground of having no exclusive information. "I would not even see you, nor have any correspondence with you, even for commissions for razors, English beer, peppermint-water, pickled salmon, and lottery tickets; in a word, I could know nothing certain except through some confidence which I should not care to abuse." After this positive answer the two parted cordially, and, so far as is to be seen, Mr. Wentworth withdrew from Paris, grieved as he said (No. 1832) at the "ineffaceable unpleasantness of having been taken for a spy."

No. 1837, which does not bear the name of the writer or of the person to whom it was addressed, although Le Ray de Chaumont may have received it, reveals an attempt on the part of some partisan of England to induce France to "sell out" the colonies, by forming a commercial union with her ancient enemy. The writer maintains that no one in France rightly understands the theories of commerce. The desire to propitiate must have been active to induce him to say: "I am persuaded that if France, in the present conjuncture, treated openly and in good faith with Great Britain, she would obtain all that would contribute towards establishing peace on a solid basis." Unenthusiastic as the French King often showed himself to be towards America, he was not likely to be beguiled in this way, so long as

Vergennes alertly stood between his master and the indifferentism of Maurepas. That, by the way, was a wise saw which, in a letter to Montmorin (No. 1847), Vergennes says that he once learned from M. Chauvelin, Keeper of the Seals, that "the whole science of politics was concentrated in the two words *foresee* and *forestall*."

From Edinburgh to the Antarctic. By W. G. Burn Murdoch. With a chapter by W. S. Bruce. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. xii, 364. Illustrated.

THOSE interested in Polar exploration and adventure have long known Dundee as a Scotch New Bedford, from which many whale-ships hail. The brothers Gray, masters and owners of such craft, have even an international reputation. Yet evil days have come for the whaling industry. Their prey, taught by experience, lurks in inaccessible recesses of the ice, or has been so reduced in numbers as to make the pursuit unprofitable. Whalebone of the better sort has risen in value until five dollars a pound has been named in the quotations. One right whale carries in his mouth a ton of baleen, while the oil pays the freight. This is a little fortune, and two or three whales will pay for a voyage. But in Spitzbergen Seas, Baffin's Bay, and the North Atlantic region generally even the two or three can no longer be had. The Dundee masters do not like long voyages, and have become so domesticated that they feel defrauded if they cannot winter at home. But something had to be done, or the business would come to an end.

Whalemen are prone to legend, and their "yarns" are proverbial. There is always a lost bay where the young whales are born and oily millions are basking in security behind a protective line of sand and breakers, waiting for the lucky master who shall again discover the hidden inlet. In a certain latitude, longitude uncertain, so-and-so has sighted an enormous school of sperm-whales, very shy, with a diabolical faculty of eluding the boats and disappearing in the fog. However, by proper means, something might be done even with them, if all else failed. Then there is the long-lost island in the North Pacific where the fur-seals winter, reported in the last century by a Russian boat crew driven far from land by storms, with no instruments but a compass, and finally reaching Kadiak by a miracle. Even last year a vessel sailed in search of this mythical island, as many have done before, seeking the goddess Fortuna in the bewildering fogs and murderous southeasters of the Eastern Ocean.

In an unguarded moment Sir James Ross referred to some whales seen in Erebus and Terror Gulf, during his antarctic expedition of 1842, as "right whales." This expression was recalled by the Dundee whaling-masters when their arctic work no longer prospered. In 1891 a voyage to the antarctic was mooted, but came to nothing. In the following year Mr. Kinnes succeeded in enlisting capital in the project, and four whale-ships, the barks *Balena*, *Diana*, *Active*, and *Polar Star*, were outfitted. The largest, the *Balena*, registered 260 tons, with a 65 horse-power auxiliary engine. The fleet agreed to rendezvous in the South Shetlands, where Ross's whales were to be sought for. The Royal Geographical and Meteorological Societies were naturally interested in the project, and contributed instruments for scientific observation; while some public-spirited individuals arranged that the ships' surgeons should be men of scientific

tastes, supplied with the necessary equipment for doing incidental scientific work. The surgeon of the *Balena*, Dr. Bruce, and a young artist who signed articles as surgeon's assistant, at a shilling a month, with no advances, are the authors of this volume.

To sum up briefly the commercial results of the expedition, no right whales were found, though "finbacks" abounded; but the vessels turned their attention to sealing, came home "full," and made a prosperous voyage. The *Balena* left Dundee in September, 1892, and reached the Falkland Islands on the 8th of December. She arrived in the South Shetlands early in January, 1893, started on her homeward voyage February 18, and reached Dundee on the 30th of May. It would seem from the text that the commander of the *Balena* was not favorably inclined towards the scientific utilization of the voyage. That his men should work on Sunday all day and well into the night killing and flensing seals was "a wark o' necessity," but making "pictures on the Lord's Day o' Rest is an awfu' like thing." Nevertheless, in spite of obstacles, hardships, and deprivations, something was accomplished.

The South Shetlands were probably first sighted by Dirk Gerritz in 1599, but were first made known by William Smith in 1818, while Graham Land beyond them was discovered by Biscoe in 1832. They were surveyed by Ross in his remarkable antarctic expedition of 1842-43, and the subsequent progress of discovery has been in the line of unimportant if useful detail. The Dundee fleet added almost nothing to the chart, but a Norwegian ship which they met, the *Jason*, Capt. Larsen, traced the eastern shore of Graham Land to 68° south, noting two active volcanoes which he called Mt. Jason and Mt. Sarssee. The same mariner brought from Seymour Island fossil shells and coniferous wood, of Tertiary age, the first relics of this sort which have been obtained from the antarctic lands. These show, of course, that a warmer climate once prevailed there.

The *Active* determined the insularity of Joinville Land by passing through a strait previously unknown. The climate of the region showed remarkable uniformity; the temperature averaged during the whole of their stay about one degree below the freezing-point, this in the height of the antarctic summer. The lowest was 21 degrees, the highest 33 degrees Fahrenheit. Except where too steep for snow to lie, the land was wholly ice-bound, and no land vegetation of any sort is reported. The seals, which insured the commercial success of the voyage, were of four kinds, all peculiar to the antarctic region: two sea-leopards (*Stenorhynchus leptonyx* and *S. weddellii*), the white crab-eating seal (*S. carcinophagus*), and Ross's seal. Unused to man, they made no attempt to escape. Their slaughter was indiscriminate and painful to witness. An examination showed their stomachs to contain fish, crustaceans, an occasional penguin, and "ballast" in the shape of small stones. Some of the arctic pinnipeds also are known to take in "ballast." Birds were plentiful, especially the penguins; about twenty species in all were recognized, including the Cape pigeon, smaller albatross, and the sheathbill, or *Chionis*. The comical antics of the penguins were a never-ending source of amusement. Taxidermists as well as ordinary readers may find profit in the study of the spirited and characteristic sketches by Mr. Murdoch, which give a very different idea of the penguin from the specimens usually found in museums.

The aspect of antarctic ice is notably differ-

ent from that of the arctic regions. Huge table topped vertical-sided bergs are the rule, and the irregular pinnacled ice of the north is seldom represented. The beauty of color and grandeur of form were the admiration and the despair of our artist, who endeavors to paint in words, not without success, some of the marvels he found beyond the powers of his brush.

Much of the book is naturally devoted to the voyage and the stay at the Falklands, the latter impressing Mr. Murdoch more favorably than they did Darwin. Altogether, unfamiliar scenes are agreeably depicted; and if the artist's sketches have suffered somewhat in "processing," they still lend much of interest to the text. The maps are excellent, but there is no index.

From the Greeks to Darwin: An Outline of the Development of the Evolution Idea. By Henry Fairfield Osborn, Sc.D. (Columbia University Biological Series.—I.) Macmillan & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. 259.

THIS is an attempt to determine the history of Evolution, its development and that of its elements, and the indebtedness of modern to earlier investigators. The book is a valuable contribution; it will do a great deal of good in disseminating more accurate ideas of the accomplishments of the present as compared with the past, and in broadening the views of such as have confined themselves too closely to the recent or to specialties. Through philosophy, history, theology, and general literature, the author has extended his search to the remotest suggestions. His account is connected and well written; it contains many a surprise for those who, working without backward glances, have taken zoological science to be a concern only of to-day. Nearly all of our theories are in some way followed back to the oldest speculations. The aquatic origin of life and the germ of Evolution are traced to Thales and Anaximander, spontaneous generation to Xenophanes, natural selection to Empedocles, adaptation to Democritus, pangenesis to Hippocrates and Heraclitus, and so on. Indebtedness to the ancients, as also what is owed to the later Bacon, Buffon, Lamarck, and many others of the series reaching to the present time, is set forth in a manner that will go far toward modifying prevalent estimates of the proportions of noted authorities. To be entirely complete, the discussion should include Inorganic Evolution.

The point of view is conservative; consequently, while it appeals to the larger circle of readers, this work may not satisfy radicals of either of the so-called modern schools. The conclusions are mainly personal, and are subject to changes by others. It will be questioned whether the influence of the ancients has not been estimated too highly, and too often imagined to exist. The basis of modern methods is traced to the philosophers, but the true basis of the science of nature lies in the things themselves, and they suggest the methods. Distinctions should be made between the probabilities of influence from the purely speculative, and coincidences arising from the study of the same objects; direct influence, in addition to the historical connection, existing in the one case and not in the other. In coincidence of conclusions on natural objects between a later writer and an earlier, again, the probabilities of direct influence may be said to be greater if both are wrong than if both are right. Whether points like these have had sufficient consideration in this work must be determined by subsequent studies.

The author's three stages in the discovery of a law of nature are, "first, that of dim suggestion in pure speculation, with eyes closed to facts; second, that of clear statement as a tentative or working hypothesis in an explanation of certain facts; and finally, the proof or demonstration." Preferably, the first stage should be observation, the second comparison and speculation. Science has suffered too much from statements of what is seen with eyes closed to the facts. Working hypotheses should not be valued so high, especially if they are theories not formed by the student himself. They may lead to brilliant thought, but are mostly unproductive of valuable results. Most of the early investigators too readily left observation for guesswork, and, once entangled in "working hypotheses," never again freed themselves. That Cuvier, when he left his objective studies for speculation, was exceptionally unsound, is very true, but it is equally true that his retarding influence was most felt through the adoption of his conclusions as working hypotheses by his followers. The author says (p. 9): "Young Darwin was among the few who kept before his mind [their minds] both theories." "There were but two theories to choose from, the special-creation theory and the transmutation theory. He took them up with an open mind" (p. 232). Darwin's statement (p. 234) is: "I worked on true Baconian principles, and, without any theory, collected facts on a wholesale scale, more especially with respect to domesticated products, by printed inquiries, by conversation with skilful breeders and gardeners, and by extensive reading."

It is in the approach to the present time that we notice in our author a slight lack of proportion. A final estimate of Darwin as compared with his predecessors is hardly possible while standing so near. The valuation of his service in the overthrow of the theory of special creations is fair; that of his special theories has the appearance of a compromise. The fact of survival is much less acceptable as proof of fitness than twenty years ago, and the tendency is to question, in definite application, the notion that "the less fit have perished," as thoroughly as we should question, say, the notion that "the progeny of the less fit, from the greater strain exerted upon the parents by the modifying agents, are the more adaptable." Hence it is evident that we are not yet prepared for accurate appreciation.

As a whole the book is admirable. The author has been more impartial than any of those who have, in part, anticipated him in the same line of work.

George William Curtis. By Edward Cary. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

INASMUCH as Mr. Cary's personal approach to Mr. Curtis was from the side of politics and reform, while political journalism is his own vocation, it was to be expected that his book would be more satisfactory on this side than on that of literature pure and simple. Nevertheless, if the work is anywhere preëminently good, it is in the chapters that concern those years when Mr. Curtis was writing the 'Nile Notes' and 'The Howadji in Syria,' 'The Potiphar Papers' and 'Prue and I.' Nowhere a mere eulogist, Mr. Cary's discrimination between 'The Potiphar Papers' and 'Prue and I' is clear and fine, and, a little later, his indication of the failure of 'Trumps,' and the circumstances and habits that contributed to

that failure, is as frank as the most candid critic could desire.

Both on his father's and his mother's side Mr. Curtis's ancestry is traced back to the first settlement of New England. The first Curtis brought over a certificate of his conformity to the Church of England and of his being "no subsidy man"; wherein the seekers for ingenious parallels will find one with the most distinguished of the line. The Curtis of Revolutionary times was a stiff-necked Tory of Worcester, Mass., who made his peace with the local patriots in 1777. Mr. Curtis's brother Burrill, whose death has just been announced, furnishes valuable pages about their parents and their boarding at Brook Farm. Another informant represents George as seeming twenty-five when he was only eighteen, "with courteous recognition of others' convictions and even prejudices, and never a personal animosity of any kind"—phrases descriptive of his later and his latest years. At this time there was a singular maturity in his letters written to his father, of which Mr. Cary gives a few admirable examples. He saw and heard Webster at Bunker Hill in 1843, and took his measure pretty well for a boy of nineteen summers: "Too great for party; not yet great enough for quiet independence." A letter of 1844 calmly contemplates disunion as the outcome of slavery aggression, and argues its advisability. This and other letters of the same period indicate that Mr. Curtis's anti-slavery enthusiasm in 1856 was not so new-born as it has heretofore appeared; that he was in the van before he went abroad, but that three years of travel and the subsequent literary engrossment meant a certain arrest of his anti-slavery development.

The chapter on the Howadji books is interesting on more than one account. Compared with earlier writing in Curtis's journal and elsewhere, their style is artificial—a sympathetic adaptation to the Oriental theme. There is little indication of his learning how to write. The leading characteristics of his style appear in things he wrote while yet a boy, but it was chastened and subdued as time went on. The relations of father and son come out clearly in a letter written in 1851, when the 'Nile Notes' had been publicly reproved upon the score of immorality, and the father had been grieved at what seemed too much excuse for the assault. A mingled deference and independence is the prevailing note, though the latter may be in the ascendant when "the Howadji" says: "Had I written a book to please you, I would not have published it, because it would not have pleased myself."

The essential spirit of the book is precisely what I wish it. Something of the violence with which Mr. Curtis lashed out in the 'Potiphar Papers' is due, perhaps, to the spasm of virtue which his 'Nile Notes' excited in "the best society" of New York in 1851. A number of letters to Charles F. Briggs reflect the humors of his experience in the lecture field, and the buoyancy of his spirits while he was at once lecturing, writing books, and contributing to the papers and the magazines. We do not seem to find as full an account as we should like of the scope of Mr. Curtis's lectures. Such a one as that of 1859 on "Modern Infidelity," which he delivered to forty two lyceums in one winter, marks indelibly the force of his appeal to private reason from any authority whatsoever, and one craves some mention of it as an illustration of Mr. Curtis's religious thought, and his publication of it without the least equivocation or disguise.

Coming to the dreadful winter of 1860-'1, we

find Mr. Curtis with Horace Greeley, John A. Andrew, and many others contemplating disunion as the ideal solution of the crisis, in case the South declined to yield her claims. This attitude was so common among the Republican leaders that it is not to be wondered at in any particular case, but it is certainly surprising to find Mr. Curtis warmly approving (much more warmly than Whittier) Seward's speech of January, 1861. For that speech certainly did betray the anti-slavery principles in a most gross and miserable fashion—surrendering the Territories to slavery or freedom as one or the other might be voted up or down, and proposing an unalterable amendment to the Constitution prohibiting national interference with slavery in the States. The war once found inevitable, Mr. Curtis bent all his energies to shaping it into an instrument for the destruction of slavery. There are many beautiful letters in the book; there is no other so beautiful as that written just after the death of Lincoln, nor is it possible to read it without "a great trembling of the heart." In the chapter on Mr. Curtis's connection with *Harper's Weekly* we have the criticism of an editor on an editor, and it is the more valuable on this account. His editorial style was not that of his essays or orations. It was a talking style:

"He seemed to have his reader as clearly in his mind as if he were sitting before him, and he reasoned with him, appealed to him, suggested to him, as he would have done had their eyes met. And the editor did not make the mistake of either overrating or underrating the person to whom he addressed himself. I have sometimes thought that this imaginary companion was conceived by him with a very serious reference to the character of the *Weekly* as it was when he took charge of it, and that his typical reader was one who primarily liked to look at pictures, and whose interest, thus attracted, was to be directed by the writer."

Arriving at Mr. Curtis's connection with civil-service reform, Mr. Cary is in closer sympathy with his subject than at any other point. He bears new and valuable testimony to the sound, practical, common-sense dealing of Mr. Curtis with the whole business. The political reaction of 1874 and 1876, so closely following on the great Republican victory of 1872, was no whit in excess of his anticipation. The Hayes-Tilden electoral commission was his original device for solving the problem; but how he relished the purely partisan character of the decision we are left in doubt. In the spring of 1877 Hayes offered him his choice of the great foreign missions, but his lack of legal training was a bar to his acceptance of any of them, together with his fear of doing a less influential work. His break with Conkling followed soon, and then in 1884 the more signal one with Blaine and the Republican party. We are duly shown what long and ample preparation there was for the course which he eventually pursued. The utter silliness and immorality of those who hold each member of a convention bound to support the action of the majority, do not, perhaps, deserve attention, but there is a letter (p. 291) which may be commended to the victims of such gross illusion. Moreover, we are reminded that a motion for such a construction failed in the convention, those favoring it withdrawing it in face of Mr. Curtis's vigorous opposition, as if they dared not put it to the test. The reasons for his support of Mr. Cleveland in 1888 are summarized very carefully in a letter to some stranger who had written him a letter of friendly criticism and disapproval.

Of Mr. Curtis's more personal and private

life, his tastes, his friendships, his domestic life, his religious attitude, Mr. Cary has written with brevity and reserve, but with a discriminating touch. Taking his book as a whole, those must have known Mr. Curtis extremely long and well whose good opinion of him is not enhanced by this entirely simple and sincere portrayal of his character and his career.

Among Men and Horses. By M. Horace Hayes, F.R.C.V.S. Illustrated by reproductions from photographs. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

CAPTAIN HAYES was born in the County of Cork. He was three years a cadet at Woolwich, went to India and became a captain in "The Buffs." He has been a voluminous writer on horsey and veterinary topics and is a good and recognized authority. This book is a rambling record of his very active life in all parts of the world. It is very readable, and its interest is enhanced by much that is instructive, for Captain Hayes knows his Horse well, and he has appreciated the phases of human nature with which his peculiar experiences have brought him in contact. Like most of his class, he has a somewhat obscure notion of the line of demarcation between the sportsman and the sporting man, but his instincts tend to the better side. He says that "in the vast majority of cases the ordinary Englishman's love for horses is more love for gambling. If this were not so, we would find that horse-shows would be better attended than race-meetings. . . . We all know that racing cannot be carried on without betting. . . . 'What I likes about racing,' said a young so-called sporting publican, who was a devoted student of the turf from a 'tape' and 'price-list' point of view, 'is to see my two 'quid' coming into the straight, a dozen lengths in front of everything, and all the rest pulling up.' The author has, nevertheless, the racing man's admiration for a good better, as for example: "Cremorne beat him by a short head. . . . 'What difference does that make to you?' said some one to George Payne. 'A hundred thousand, my boy,' coolly remarked dear old George, as serene as the moon."

He describes himself as "knocking about at race-meetings with all sorts of sporting characters, getting up boxing and athletic matches and other 'diversions' dear to the heart of an Irishman." But he had a more serious and a more serviceable side, and he has done a great deal for the horse and for horse-owners. His books, 'Points of the Horse,' 'Veterinary Notes for Horse-Owners,' and 'Illustrated Horse-Breaking,' are capital. He devised a system of breaking which seems to be of more general application than Rarey's; and with his wife, who rode the reformed brutes the minute they left his hand, he made the tour of the colonial world, giving lessons and public exhibitions, and getting material for some of the most entertaining portions of his book.

As to Buffalo Bill's buckjumpers, he says:

"If any of these animals really did buck, which I rather doubt, it was in the feeble manner which might have been expected from 'trick' horses which had to do their 'turn' twice a day for months, if not for years. Besides, buckjumping is a vice which no horse will continually practise unless he receives the frequent encouragement of throwing his man off. The cowboys seem hard, active, fearless fellows, with whom it would be more pleasant to drink than to fight. No comparison can be drawn between their riding and ours, as the two styles are entirely different. Whether their bronchos buck or only pigjump, the feat of sticking on them is not very difficult when it

is allowable to use a saddle of about fifty pounds in weight, and to hold on to it with one or both hands. The size and shape of their saddle are no doubt regulated to attain comfort in their hard work, and not merely to enable them to stick on. Had they practice in our saddles and in our methods, they would no doubt acquit themselves creditably, like the fine fellows they are."

He is very sensible on the subject of giving water to a heated horse:

"Applying the golden rule of treating a horse as I would wish myself to be treated, I introduced in India, many years ago, the practice of giving a horse in training a fairly liberal drink of water, immediately after he had done his work, before sending him back to his stable—and with the happiest results. By my example and writings, I destroyed, in India, the old and cruel myth of a drink of water being dangerous to the health of a heated horse; supposing, of course, that the water was not too cold. Take, for instance, a man who is exhausted and streaming with perspiration after doing some violent work. What, may I ask, is the first thing he does? 'Takes a drink, if he can get it,' you naturally reply. And after he has had his whiskey and soda, glass of beer or shandy-gaff, cup of tea or glass of water, what does he say? 'By Jove! that has done me a power of good,' or words to that effect, you answer. Right again, my reader, and so would your horse say, under similar circumstances, were he able to speak. But I fancy I hear you observe that even horses have been known to drop dead from taking a drink when they were hot. Such instances, I admit, have undoubtedly occurred; but only when the imbibed fluid was comparatively cold, in which cases it caused death by nervous shock. The precaution of slightly warming the water, or of giving it only in small and repeated quantities, is not difficult to adopt."

In connection with training, he says:

"The easiest way to get down weight—without resorting to the continued use of medicine, which cannot help being injurious to the health—is that of abstaining from taking any fluid during meals, and for, say, an hour and a half after meals; no restriction being placed on its consumption before meals, so long as the one and a half hours' interval after them is observed. This I found very efficacious, but could not continue it, as it brought on rheumatism, on account, I presume, of the food being presented to the organs of digestion in too concentrated a form. A large amount of fluid is certainly required by the systems of most persons, to, so to speak, wash out the tissues and thus to prevent the deposition in them of deleterious products, the presence of which is apt to give rise to rheumatism and other untoward results."

Suggestive quotations might be extended ad libitum. In fact, there are few better books for the odd moments of one who has an interest in horses and horsey things.

Le Vatican, les Papes et la Civilisation; Le Gouvernement Central de l'Eglise. Paris: Didot; New York: Dyssen & Pfeiffer. 1895. 4to.

EVEN the presses of Didot have not often favored the public with a more sumptuous volume than this. Few subjects offer so rich a field for the illustrator as the central church and palace which epitomize the history of Latin Christianity in all its vicissitudes, and on which the piety and wealth of Europe have lavished all the treasures of art. For the worthy treatment of so attractive a theme the resources of the illustrator have been taxed to the utmost. Engravings and chromos, woodcuts and process cuts, have been employed in profusion, and he will be hard to please who does not find here what will satisfy his curiosity if untravelled, or recall pleasant memories if he has been fortunate enough to stand under the Dome of St. Peter's and wander through the loggia and library of the Vati-

can. Everything is here depicted, from the archaic seal of Pope Anaclet to the *fin de siècle* face of Cardinal Gibbons; from epigraphs in the catacombs to frescoes of Giotto and Raffaele and sculptures of Michelangelo and Canova; from delicious alleys and parterres in the gardens to the secret apartments of the Conclave; from the shrewd, intellectual countenance of Leo XIII. to groups of his officials and servants, his Swiss Guard and Noble Guard.

There is also much to interest in the text, though it is scarce to be reckoned worthy of the illustrations. It is true that we have an introduction by Cardinal Bourret and an epilogue by the Vicomte de Vogüé, while the body of the work has been contributed by three former members of the French School in Rome, who are evidently thoroughly familiar with their subject. The first 233 pages are occupied by a general view of the history of the papacy by M. Georges Goyau, which may be summarized as an eloquent *plaidoyer* in justification of the Syllabus of 1864. All the mediæval claims of the Church are assumed to be its inalienable rights, however obscured by the Cæsarism of the Christian Emperors and the irreligion of modern godless generations. Luther, Zwingli, and Calvin, we are told, "claim to maintain a religion, and they claim that this religion was a branch of Christianity." As for science, the writer complains that after the Reformation "it ceased to accept as postulates the dogmas revealed by Christ or taught by the Church. . . . If it came across them and found them true, it adopted these communications of God. God had to allow himself to be surprised, *flagrante delicto*, in material exactitude."

Of course from an essay written in this spirit there is not much to be learned except the curious recrudescence of mediævalism which the Holy See is stimulating with some success. Of greater value is the second essay, also by M. Goyau, on the central government of the Church, giving us an inside view of the organization and machinery through which the two hundred millions of the Roman obedience are spiritually governed. Of the vastness and intricacy of this business a glimpse can be had from the single fact that the archives of the Datary, from the accession of Martin V., in 1317, to Pius VII., contain 6,690 volumes of supplications addressed to the Pope for benefices and for dispensations to marry within the prohibited degrees. The third section is by M. André Pératé, and is entitled "The Popes and the Arts." In the space of about a hundred pages it gives us an interesting sketch of the patronage of art in the papal court, and its influence on the artistic development of Europe. Finally, another hundred pages, by M. Paul Fabre, describes the Vatican Library and its vast accumulations of literary and historical treasures, which the enlightened liberality of Leo XIII. has thrown open to scholars of all nations and creeds. In the paragraphs, however, devoted to the library under Pius IX., M. Fabre preserves a discreet and significant silence with regard to its most industrious and illustrious custodian, Augustin Theiner.

Yet, after all, in turning over the pages of this splendid book, the thought awakened by its ostentatious display of the magnificence of the papal court and its surroundings is, what Jesus of Nazareth, if He returned to earth in his humble guise, would think of his representative, and what his representative would think of Him.

As a Matter of Course. By Annie Payson Call. Boston: Robert Brothers. 1894. Pp. 125.

JUDGING by Miss Call's title, her book might be a novel by Howells, but in reality it is a treatise on mental hygiene, big by reason of the importance of its stuff, even if small in the number of its pages. They that are whole need not a physician; but they that are making themselves whole can find no better ally than the author of this unpretending volume. In her previous work, "Power through Repose," Miss Call preached the gospel of muscular relaxation to her countrymen; here it is the gospel of mental relaxation. Both gospels are needed by our people sorely; but few realize the unnatural state of "contraction" of every sort in which they live, and a special grace from on high is usually needed to reveal to us that there is a way out, so simple and near-lying that to overlook it would seem impossible, save for the fact that the very tension and pressure and hurly-burly in which we live in our prison close the valves of the opening to so narrow a crack that we roll over and over it without perceiving it to be there. To ignore things, to be willing that they should take their course, to let go our hold on them and on ourselves, and throw overboard a good lot of our supposed higher consciousness—these sound in one sense like immoral maxims, and for some people they would be immoral maxims, but to the over-tense and over-careful and irritated type of spirit they are the only outlet to a wholesome moral life.

The merit of Miss Call's book is in inducting the reader into this philosophy in detail. We might give extracts, but out of their context and place in the general argument they would probably sound more trivial than they are in the book, so to cite would be unfair. Moreover, Miss Call's style shines more by sincerity and plainness than by rhetorical ability. Her book, had it a little more brilliancy, might well take a place with us similar to that which Feuchtersleben's "Diätetik der Seele" has held in Germany, and go through edition after edition. This would seem only natural in a work which must meet the exact need of so many persons, and of which the quality is so peculiarly real and penetrating and the humanity so rare.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Alarcón, P. A. de. *El Final de Norma*. W. R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
A New Gospel of Labor. Seattle, Wash.: S. Wegener. 50 cents.
A Selection from Child Life in Poetry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
A Selection from Child Life in Prose. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Baldry, Alfred L. *Albert Moore, his Life and Works*. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. \$22.50.
Baring Gould, S. *Noëmi*. Appletons. \$1.
Beazley, C. K. *Prince Henry the Navigator*. Putnam. \$1.50.
Bercy, Paul. *Lectures Faciles pour l'Étude du Français*. W. R. Jenkins. \$1.
Bernard, V. F. *L'Art d'Intéresser en Classe*. W. R. Jenkins. 30 cents.
Bhikshu, Subhadra. *A Buddhist Catechism*. Putnam. \$1.
Bowyer, J. T. *The Pollinator*. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Bradford, Dr. T. L. *The Life and Letters of Dr. Samuel Hahnemann*. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. \$3.50.
Bridges, Robert. *Milton's Prosody*. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents.
Butcher, Prof. S. H. *Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Art. With a Critical Text and a Translation of the Poetics*. Macmillan. \$3.25.
Call, R. E. *The Life and Writings of Raffinesque*. [Filson Club Publications.] Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.
Callaway, Prof. Morgan. *Select Poems of Sidney Lanier*. Scribners. \$1.
Chesney, Gen. Sir George. *Indian Polity: A View of the System of Administration in India*. 3d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. \$6.
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